

SURVEY

OF THE

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

OF THE

MIDDLE AGES,

A.D. 476—1492.

BY

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BY

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PREFACE BY THE EDITOR.

THE "Survey of Mediæval Geography and History," the *larger* edition of which is now translated into English for the first time, by Professor Stigell, of Maynz, forms the second volume of a series of Histories by Professor Pütz, of the Catholic Gymnasium, at Köln. The most marked attention has been paid to the spelling of proper names, and to the correcting of the few historical errors which had crept into the German edition; while those portions of the "Survey" which appeared to the Editor to be too limited to be clearly understood, have been extended.

E. G.

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HANDBOOK

OF

MEDIÆVAL GEOGRAPHY & HISTORY.

INTRODUCTION.

I. Germany before the Migrations.

§ 1.

GEOGRAPHY OF ANCIENT GERMANY, OR, GERMANY IN THE FIRST CENTURY OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

1. The Land.

a) Name and Extent.—From the time that Julius Cæsar subdued the German tribes on the left bank of the Rhenus, *Rhine*, and united them to the Belgic Gauls, Roman Germany was divided into *Germania Superior* (or *Prima*), including the territory from Basilia, *Basle*, to below Mogontiacum, *Maynz* or *Mentz*; *Germania Inferior*, (or *Secunda*), along the Rhenus, *Rhine* from Mogontiacum, *Maynz*, to the country of the Batavi; and *Germania Magna* (Independent or Free Germany, also called Transrhenana or Barbara), consisting of the country between the Rhenus, *Rhine*, Danubius, *Donau*, the Vistula, *Weichsel*, and the North and East Seas.

Roman Germany was fortified against the incursions of the Free Germans by a line of castles and forts, as Bingium, *Bingen*, Bona, *Bonn*, Colonia Agrippina, *Koln* or *Cologne*, Novesium, *Neuss*, Castravetera, *Xanten*, which extended from the Rhenus, *Rhine*, below the Segus Fl., *Sieg*, to the Danubius, *Donau*, nearly to Ratisbona. Those on the Danubius, *Donau*, extended from Regina-Castra or Ratisbona, *Regensberg*, upwards to the Hungarian Forests. The Romans also

erected detached fortresses on the other side of those two rivers at different points, particularly on the Taunus Mountains in Westphalia, for the protection of their frontiers, and to secure a free passage for their legions into the territory of the enemy. By degrees the Romans acquired possessions on the right bank of the Rhine, and on the left bank of the Donau: these, however, were distinguished from the other Roman German provinces by the payment of tribute, and are termed by Tacitus, *agri decumates*, tribute lands. The walls, towers, and forts, built by the Romans formed the Vallum Romanum (*Great Wall*), which, perhaps, was once only a leading highway, such as we now find certain traces of in the Pfahlgraben on the Lower Rhine, and the Teufel's Mauer (*Devil's Wall*) on the Upper Rhine, which probably extended from Regensberg on the Donau over the Mayn and the Lahn, and joined the Rhine at Neuwied, and reached even to Siebenbergen, *Transylvania*.

b) The Mountains from the Donau to the Carpathians were named after Hercynia, or Orcynia Silva, the Hercynian Forests. In later times, as the country became better known, the above name was restricted to the mountains of Eastern Germany, and other designations were given to the remainder. Those not included in the Hyrcanian ranges were the Taunus, in the angle between the Rhine and the Mayn; and the Teutelberg Mountains, in which the Amisia, *Ems*, the Luppia or Lippia, *Lippe*, and the Visurgis, *Weser*, take their rise.

c) The Rivers. 1, the Rhine, *Rhenus*.—The other rivers of Germany known to the ancients were the Neckar, *Nicer*, the Mayn, *Mænus*, the Lahn, *Logana*, the Sieg, *Segus*, the Ruhr, *Rura*, the Lippe, *Luppia*; 2, the Ems, *Amisia*; 3, the Weser, *Visurgis*; 4, the Elbe, *Albis*, which (according to Strabo) separated Germany into two halves, and the Saale, *Salas*; 5, the Oder, *Viadrus*; 6, the Weichsel, *Vistula*, which divided Germany from Sarmatia; 7, the Donau or Danube, *Danubius* or *Ister*. This great river formed the boundary of the Roman Alpine provinces, and extended itself on the left side into Germany. The Naab, *Nablis*, the Regen, *Reganum*, the Morava, *Marus*, the Gran, *Granua*, the Waag, *Cusus*.

d) Soil and Productions. According to the Romans (whose accounts are probably much exaggerated), Germany was a wild, rugged country, almost impassable from the number of black forests, foul bogs, and wide-extended marshes with which it abounded. Fruit-trees were almost unknown, and the cultivated land was comparatively

unproductive, the ground being covered with snow and ice during the greater portion of the year.

a) The forests, particularly the oak forests, abounded with wild animals, many species of which are now unknown, excepting in the higher latitudes of the north; as the urus, or wild ox, the elk, and the bear; wild horses and bears were very numerous. The tame cattle were prolific but of inferior size and short-horned, (*non gloria frontis*.) The horses were ill-shapen and small, but very strong and hardy. Besides these there were sheep, goats, swine, dogs, (hounds for the chase,) fowls, bees, and fish of all kinds. b) The vegetable kingdom: the innumerable dense forests produced a vast quantity of wood; and many of the trees reached an extraordinary size. The fruits never attained perfection, but oats, barley, and green vegetables of all kinds, were in abundance. c) Of the mineral kingdom: silver, copper, and iron, (used for arms,) salt, and, on the north-eastern coast, a resinous substance called amber, produced from the pine, congealed and hardened in the sea. Silver was, however, exceedingly scarce, and gold (if any) unsought for in the mine.

2. The Tribes of Free Germans.

a) The inhabitants or people of Germania Magna (Free Germany) in the most remote times of which we have any record, were divided into *tribes*, each of which consisted of a number of *families*, and formed apparently a distinct nation. They were not, however, bound together by any political tie, but rather by their language, their legal customs, their dissipated habits, and their religion. A seeming unity was preserved amongst them by their traditions, which led them to trace their common origin to one *Manus*, from whose three sons, *Ingo*, *Isco*, and *Irmino*, the three principal Germanic tribes derived their names, a tradition remarkably analogous in number, if not in name, to the *Enosh*, *mensch* (*man*), Noah and his three sons, the four fathers of the Asiatic, European, and African races.

A. The Free Germans.

a) The *Istævones* (West Germans) on the right bank of the Rhine, from Mainz to the mouth of the Yssel.

To this branch belong (1) the *Usipetes*, and the *Tencteri*, who had a small strip of territory on the right bank of the Rhine from the isles of the Batavi nearly to Cologne; 2) east, between the Lippe and the Siegmen, the *Sigambri*, or *Sicambri*; 3) the *Marsi*, (most probably) in the direction of Coesfeld; and 4) the *Bructeri*, who dwelt on both sides of the Ems.

b) The *Ingævones* (inhabitants of the coast) dwelling

on the borders of the North Sea, from the mouth of the Rhine, to the Cimbric Peninsula, *Jutland*.

1) The *Batavi* inhabited the island between the Waal and the Rhine; 2) the *Friesi* (or *Frisii*) from the east mouth of the Rhine to the Ems, and on the islands of the coast; 3) the *Ampsivarii* on both sides of the lower Ems (*Amisia*), whence their name; 4) the *Chauci*, the most numerous of the Ingævonian tribes, were located in the marshy country extending from the mouth of the Ems to that of the Elbe; and 5) the *Saxones*, who were east of the Elbe, in the present Holstein.

c) The *Hermiones* (or *Irmiones*), inhabiting the central parts, south of the Ingævones, and east of the *Istævones*.

To the above belonged the two confederate tribes of the *Cherusci*, on both sides of the Middle Weser, and the *Catti* from the junction of the Fulda, and the *Werra* in the north, to the union of the *Mayn* and the Rhine in the south.

B. *The Suevian Germans.*

From the most remote period large masses of free Germans, from the country between the Rhine and the North Sea, immigrated toward the east and south, and amalgamated with the people of those countries forming the tribe of the *Suevi*. The *Suevian Germans* extended east to the *Weichsel* and the *Carpathian Mountains*, and south to the *Danube*, where they approached the Roman provinces.

The principal tribes of the Southern *Suevi* were the *Hermunduri* and the *Marcomanni*, between the *Mayn* and the *Danube*. The latter tribe on the advance of the Romans in that direction withdrew themselves from the Upper *Danube*, and retreated to *Bohemia*, when they bordered on the *Quadi*, a *Suevic* tribe in the south-east. The Eastern *Suevi* were the *Semnoncs*, between the *Elbe* and the *Oder*; the *Langobardi* in the neighbourhood of the Lower *Elbe*, in the tract called *Bardengau*; the *Burgundiones* between the *Oder* and the *Weichsel*; and the Northern German tribe of the *Gotones*, (who in the time of *Caracalla* appear under the name of *Goths*), on the right bank of the *Weichsel*, and on the *Baltic* coasts.

§. 2.

STATE OF CIVILIZATION AMONG THE ANCIENT GERMANS.

A. Religion.

In the first century of the Christian era, the religion of the ancient Germans was not a rude worship of nature, but consisted essentially in the veneration of divinities; even the idea of a most high God was not unknown to them, whilst the belief of a future and an immortal state of existence, where glory and honour should be conferred upon the brave and the virtuous, animated their breasts on the battle field, and nerved them in the hour of danger.

The religious notions of the Germans bore manifest traces of an Oriental origin. The most exalted of their gods, and that which received the highest worship amongst them, was Wustan, the Odin of the north, and the Buddha of the east. He was regarded as the Almighty, Omniscient, All-creating Power, on whom depended success in war, and prosperity in the time of peace. The second principal deity was Donar, the northern Thor (Roman Mars); he was the god of battles, and was said to rule over the thunder (tonnerre) and the lightning, and the seasons, on which depended the fruitful productions of the earth. Beside these there was a special *god of war* named Zio (Zeús), the Gothic Tius (Deus), from whom the word Tuesday (Dinstag) is derived. He was, as might be expected amongst a nation of warriors, an object of peculiar adoration. The numerous Goddesses (for the ancient Germans had more goddesses than gods) were looked upon as wandering, visiting, nursing mothers, instructing the human race in the domestic occupations and arts, and in husbandry. To one of these goddesses Tacitus gives the name of Nertha, or Hertha (Mother Earth) Nirdu, and describes the ceremonies which were observed in her worship. She was supposed to be the mother of all mankind, guiding and ruling over human affairs, and visiting at stated times the several nations of the earth. Her place of residence was supposed by some to have been the Isle of Rugen in the Baltic Sea; by others, Heligoland near the mouth of the Elbe. "When she pursued her journey from one nation to another, she was accompanied by a priest who followed the sacred chariot, which was drawn by cows. During her progress, festivals and rejoicings took place, war was unthought of, arms were entirely laid aside, and the sweets of peace were known and enjoyed. On her return to her residence, the priest declared the goddess satisfied with her visitation, and re-conducted her to the sacred grove, her sanctuary; the chariot with the sacred mantle which covered it, and, according to some, the goddess herself, and not her effigy, were then purified in the sacred lake, in which the slaves who assisted in the ceremonies were drowned, lest they should divulge the sacred mysteries."

The principal heroes, or earth-born gods, probably deified legislators or warriors, mortals placed *inter divos*, were Tvisco Sohn Man, the father of all men, and his sons Ingo, Isco, and Irmino. Tvisco was also the most ancient deity of the Scandinavians, and according to some, the same with the Scythian or Celtic king Treulates. Besides these deities, almost every tribe had its own peculiar dæmons, which were partly benevolent and protective, and partly of a malicious and tormenting character, shadowy or ghostly spirits, as elves, giants, dwarfs, goblins, etc. In general, the goddesses of the Germans were more venerated than the gods, hence the importance which they attached to their counsels and responses, and the reverence with which they regarded certain females of their nation, who were supposed to be gifted with prophetic powers. The female sex was sacred, and adultery was considered an inexpiable crime; it was, therefore, of very rare occurrence. Amongst the prophetesses, who were silver-haired and named wise women, or Alrunes, was the celebrated Bructerian prophetess Velede, regarded as their queen. They were not worshipped as gods, but were very highly venerated and esteemed, as from them emanated the oracular responses of the will of the gods, which they interpreted from the entrails of animals sacrificed for the purpose. Sometimes human victims were offered, supplied from the prisoners taken in war, culprits guilty of great crimes, or slaves purchased for the purpose. Omens, such as the roaring of the waves, the dashing of the billows against the rocks, etc., were also interpreted by the wise women.

The religious services of the ancient Germans always took place in the open air. To immure their deities in temples, was to take from them the majesty of superior beings. Woods and groves were their sacred depositories, whilst sometimes holy mountains, consecrated lakes, rivers, and wells, were the places set apart for worship, which consisted of prayers and offerings in sacrifice.

The kind of prayer used, and the method of praying are unknown; but it is supposed to have consisted in lifting up the eyes towards heaven, bending the body, folding the hands, bending the knees, and uncovering the head.

The offering of animals, particularly milk-white horses, was common to them. Fruits and flowers are seldom mentioned, probably because of their comparatively small value. The will of the gods was also ascertained by the flight of birds, the casting of lots, and the neighing of the sacred horses, (milk-white steeds,) a number of which were kept at the public expense, and when occasion required were splendidly caparisoned, and placed in the sacred chariot, when they were led forth accompanied by the sovereign. The priests, who interpreted the neighings, were regarded as the organs of the gods. The religious worship of the ancient Germans was by no means destitute of sensual gratifications, and the religious element was largely mixed up by them in all their rejoicings and feastings.

The priests were not a sacerdotal caste like the Druids of Gaul and Britain, but united with the priestly character that of the civilian; they attended the public assemblies of the people; and even accompanied the army to the field, regulating the discipline of the same, and punishing delinquencies whenever discovered.

B. Constitution and Government of the ancient Germans.

According to Tacitus, Germany had anciently as many republics as tribes, all of which were governed by an unwritten or common law, formed by the community from the traditions of their ancestors. These were administered by the elder, or chief, who from the *Hill of Justice*, in the presence of the members of the community, decided upon the cases brought before him. The laws were not, however, universal throughout all the tribes; a similarity, indeed, pervaded them, but they differed somewhat from each other in every tribe, or confederation of tribes. *Written laws* probably existed long before the Carlovingian period, and seem to have been first used by those tribes of Western Germany, on the left bank of the Rhine, who had come in contact with nations which had forsaken idolatry and embraced Christianity; hence there was a considerable difference between the laws of the Western Germans and those of the East, who were still governed wholly by hereditary customs.

In all the Germanic codes the traces of a jury are discernible, whose province it was (at least in more recent periods) to fix the amount of satisfaction, or fine, to be rendered to the party aggrieved, which was regulated according to the rank or quality of the persons concerned, and the circumstances of the crime. In many cases, however, the injured party was not bound by the decision of the court, but was at liberty either to compromise the matter, or to obtain revenge in whatever way he could. Excepting in a few instances, atonement might be made for any crime by the payment of a fine, which, if the culprit were unable to meet, he was reduced to slavery, and, in some instances, put to death.

The lands of the Germans were divided into districts, variously named; a district containing one hundred landed proprietors and their families, formed a *Community*, or a *Centenary*, sometimes also called a *Hundred*. *Pagus*, or *Gau*, consisted of several hundreds, whilst a still greater number of communities formed a *State (Civitas)*. Each district had a distinct name, and a magistrate to rule over it, chosen by the inhabitants. Those who ruled over a pagus, were of equal rank with the counts or dukes of a later period. Each district had also its assembly (*concilium*), in which were

vested the legislative and the judicial power, together with the privilege of making war and determining peace. The magistrates were usually selected from noble families, and from being elective, at length became hereditary.

The privilege of voting in the *General Assembly* was connected with the possession of landed property, which alone conferred full political rights; even the son of a landed proprietor, so long as he had not acquired land of his own, was under the wardenship (*mundium*) of his father; and even his engagements in military service, however great his bravery, did not exempt him from the parental authority: he could not be independent. The General Assembly, if nothing prevented, was held at fixed and stated periods, and the vicinity of some sacred lake, statue, or cross, was the place usually selected, to add a solemnity to the proceedings; and where neither of these was at hand, the upraised shield of the judge was used as the token. The *Ordinary Assemblies* were convened once a month, at the new or full moon. At their extraordinary assemblies (*annual plaid*s), every man took his place completely armed, so that the assembly resembled an army rather than a council of legislators. The business of the meeting was opened by the king, or in the absence of a sovereign, by the prince or chief of the community, who was followed by the rest, according to age, nobility of rank, renown in arms, or fame for eloquence. The decision of the gods, which was sought by the casting of lots, was proclaimed by the priests, and if the proposition had been favourably received, the meeting testified their approbation by the brandishing of their javelins, the clashing of their arms, and the utterance of loud exclamations. The rejection of a proposition was received by the expression of a general murmur.

In later times, as the communities became extended, and the distance from the place of meeting consequently more remote, all the proprietors of land could not possibly attend; delegates, or representatives, were therefore appointed. Subsequently, these assemblies were held twice in the year. At the first, when the more momentous affairs of the monarchy or state were discussed, all the members attended; but the second, at which the financial matters chiefly were determined, was attended only by the magistrates of the respective communities, the dukes and counts, and other

officers connected with the administration of public affairs. In the former, every man possessing land had a right to be present, but the greater proprietors alone voted; the smaller could neither take part in the debates nor vote, but had their station within a *ring* or *circle*, where they could hear, and were permitted to express their approval or disapprobation.

View of the Different Gradations of Society amongst the ancient Germans.

The mass of the people, who were characterized by their fierce blue eyes, red hair, and robust frame, consisted of those who were *free*, and of those who were in a greater or lesser degree in a state of *bondage* to others. Among the *free*, there was a class of *nobility* (*nobilitas*), by no means numerous, the origin and precise condition of which cannot be determined: according to Tacitus, it consisted of those who, having been born of parents long possessed of freedom, were invested with the dignities of the commonwealth.

Besides the *Nobles*, were the *Freemen*, the *Freedmen*, and the *Slaves*.

The *Freeman* possessed liberty, but no official dignity. War was his profession; and on being solemnly invested with his arms in the presence of the great assembly of the people, he joined himself to one of the principal chiefs, who prided themselves in the number of their armed vassals. These, in time of peace, served to increase the splendour of their retinue, and in war were a source of defence. In later times, before nobility became hereditary, it is probable that the nobles were selected from the more renowned of these armed vassals; hence the extreme jealousy with which they guarded the privileges of their order, every departure from which was severely punished.

Next to the freemen were the *freedmen* (*liberti*), among whom some class the *leudes* (*litus*), or the vassals of a lord. The freedmen may be said to have occupied a position between the freemen and the slaves, amounting to a state of half freedom. The offices discharged by them, were the various duties connected with the household, and agriculture, or the cultivation of the ground assigned to them by their lord. Between the freemen and the freedmen there was, however, a wide difference; the latter could not (according to some) bear arms, neither could they hold landed property, excepting as a *benefice* or reward for services, and then it was conferred only for life; but more frequently it was held only for a certain period; it did not descend to their family. In the courts of law they could not give evidence against a freeman, nor cite one before the judges, even for the most flagrant offence; it might, however, be done through their patron, who sued on his own behalf.

Next in order were the *Coloni*, or *Peasants*, (*Colonia conditio*), who, although distinct from the slaves, may yet be regarded as *bond*

labourers. They formed the great mass of the rural population, and occupied a condition between servitude and freedom. They were, however, irrevocably fixed to the soil, and could not be separated from the domain to which they belonged; if the estate were sold, the Coloni were sold with it. Their personal sale was forbidden, and if they made their escape from the domain to which they were attached, the proprietor could claim them wherever found, and compel their return, even though they might have joined the ranks of the clergy, and become priests. The Coloni, although capable of holding property (*Peculium*), could not alienate or dispose of it without the consent of their masters, to whom they paid a fixed annual rent, which the proprietor himself could not raise. In some respects, the condition of the Coloni was worse than that of the slaves, for their masters could not manumit them from the soil: they could only become free by *prescription*; that is, when they had been for thirty years unclaimed by any proprietor, and therefore free. The Coloni, like the slaves, were subject to corporal punishments, although their masters had no political authority over them, but such as was connected with property. In civil matters, the Coloni could not prefer any charges against their proprietors or patrons, excepting for over-exaction in the rent of the soil, or any crime in which the interests of the public at large were concerned.

Below the Coloni were the Slaves; and that they formed a very numerous class may be concluded from the fact, that it was by the produce of the cultivated lands, which devolved upon the slaves and the half-freemen, that the free warriors were supported. The slaves were either born so, or placed in that condition by various accidental circumstances; the greater portion consisted of German captives taken in war, numbers of whom were sold to the Romans, who drafted them into their legions. Freemen marrying slaves were degraded to the same position, and their offspring also became the property of the proprietor. All debtors unable to satisfy the demands of their creditors, as well as convicted criminals who could not pay the fines levied upon them, were reduced to slavery; some even embraced this condition through a mistaken piety, giving up their possessions to the church, and themselves with their families to slavery; and not a few yielded themselves to it, as a protection from want and injustice. Before the period of the empire, slaves might be mutilated and put to death at the will of their masters, and could be sold and transferred from one domain to another.

The occupations of the slaves were numerous; some were wholly engaged in the cultivation of the soil, the entire produce of which, excepting what was barely needful for their own support, went to their employers: others were occupied in the duties of the household, and in attending upon the person of their lord, and seem, as well as the Coloni, to have had a *Peculium* (*slave property*), by which they were enabled to purchase their freedom, and become *Liberti*, or freedmen.

Whether the emancipation of a slave was known in ancient times or not is doubtful. In later times, it was generally conditional, and accompanied by galling obligations. The manumission before the altar, however, was complete, and the slave was raised above the dignity

of the freedman, to that of freeman at once; so also, when, in the presence of the sovereign, the *denarius* was struck from the hand of the slave, which signified that his master refused to receive the tribute of his servitude any longer. The most common mode of enfranchisement, however, was to open the door, and push the slave away with the hand, from whence the word *manumissione*.

In later times, as the light of Christianity dawned upon the countries of the west, and the arts and sciences began to be fostered and encouraged, the landed proprietors became alive to the fact, that their vassals could be much more advantageously employed in the industrial mechanical arts than in tilling the soil. Hence, serfs and freedmen gradually became artisans, and engaged in commercial pursuits. Freemen, whose sole occupation was arms, held such employments to be servile and degrading; but in the reign of the fourth Henry the wall of partition between the serf and the freeman was broken down; they were then allowed to bear arms, and to share in the privileges of the commonwealth.

The *free* German was known by his long curly hair, his arms, and the dress he assumed, which in the summer consisted of a tunic of wool, and in the winter of a coat of skins. The *Bond* men had their hair cropped short, and wore a narrow strait garment, or short close dress. According to Tacitus, the freeman of this class might with the permission of his master, carry arms, and sometimes even occupy a post of honour. On the other hand, the serfs, or the lowest class of bondmen, were regarded as brute beasts, could be bought and sold at pleasure, and, in case of death, no recompense was awarded.

The Magistrates.

The *Magistrate*, who presided over a *pagus* or *canton*, was termed *principe*, and possessed an authority fully equal to that of the dukes or counts of a later period; they were distinguished by the nobility of their birth, and were probably selected from some one noble family. In this respect they differed from the chiefs, *Dux*, who were chosen only for their valour. The prerogative of the magistrate, or *principe*, was to govern by his advice and counsel, to determine matters of little importance himself, and to present those of greater moment before the general assembly. There were also *principes* who ruled over only a single community.

The office of *Duke* (*Dux*), which was probably filled by one or other of the *principes*, existed only so long as the war of which they had the direction lasted; he then retired, the office being wholly of a military character. During the war, he led the army of the duchy or canton, over which he was placed, to the field of battle, at the command of the sovereign. Eventually the civil authority was annexed to the military, and the office was held for life, and subsequently became

hereditary. In earlier times, the dukes had no control over the revenues of the duchy, but simply transmitted them to the court. They had, however, an income sufficient to support the splendour and dignity of their station and office; the revenue of certain lands being set aside for the express purpose, which eventually became in many instances hereditary domains.

Below the dukes were the *counts*, betwixt whom and the dukes there was a difference, similar to that which existed between the dukes and princes. There were also many *minor military judges*, who superintended the administration of justice in the various *hundreds* or *gaus* to which they were elected. An appeal from their decisions to the superior courts, however, was allowed, and even to the General Assembly itself, if considered necessary.

C. The Constitution of War.

The *arms* used by the German warriors displayed an amount of intelligence and experience, which if it had been applied to the industrial arts would have sufficed to procure for them not only the comforts, but many of the luxuries of life. That they were by no means ignorant of the art of working in metals is evident from the construction of their arms, of which the following is a brief description:—1) The *lances* and *javelins*, with which they attacked their enemies, for although they constantly wore swords, yet they but very seldom used them. The former, which were preferred, consisted of a long shaft of wood tipped with a short narrow piece of iron sharply pointed; these weapons served either for close engagement or for distant combat, for thrusting and for throwing, and with a shield formed the armour of the cavalry. The infantry had additional missive weapons, such as the *short dart* or *frame* (*framea*), which was thrown to an incredible distance with almost unerring certainty. *Breast plates* were numerous, but helmets were rarely worn; the warriors had also *bows* and *arrows*, and some of them carried immense clubs, to which pointed stones were fixed, called *stone hammers*, or *thunder bolts*. For defence, they carried a *shield* of ozier twigs interwoven, or basket-work, or one made of wood, thin boards painted or daubed over with shining gaudy colours.

Arms and citizenship were assumed by none until declared duly qualified by the state; and the aspirant for the honour must be of the age of twenty years. The candidate was introduced before the whole assembly, either by one of the

chiefs or his father, or some other relative, who, on his acceptance, invested him with a shield and javelin. When war was declared by the assembly of the nation, a public proclamation was made, summoning all who bore arms to follow their chiefs. These constituted the army (*der Heerbann*). There were those also who were designated followers (*das Geleite*), bands of young men who assembled round some hardy adventurer bent on a special expedition either at home or abroad, to acquire territory, or to obtain plunder. It was by these marauding, plundering bands that the destruction of the Western Roman Empire was mainly effected. In proceeding to the theatre of war, or field of battle, those armed with clubs formed a sort of wedge or close phalanx, whilst on either side and in the rear were their wagons laden with provisions, and their tenderest pledges—their wives and their children, who were spectators of the battle, and applauded the heroism of the warriors. In the wedge of war marched the prophetesses arrayed in milk white linen, while the bards encouraged the warriors by the sacred songs or hymns which they chaunted before the commencement of the struggle, and at intervals during the conflict. When the order of battle was destroyed, and defeat appeared probable, the women would rush in and mingle with the combatants, and not unfrequently recover the lost advantages by their heroic valour.

D. Manners and Customs.

The ancient Germans entertained a sort of horror of being shut or penned up in towns or cities, which were therefore not known amongst them; neither did they allow of a continuity of dwellings, but lived in single habitations, which were huts covered with straw, turf, or green sods, and sometimes with a kind of earth, so smooth and glossy that the natural veins had some resemblance to the lights and shades of painting. Their dwellings were erected amidst their own lands, upon which resided the chief of the family, and all those who cultivated the soil whether free or not; relatives, labourers, and slaves were like the dwellings, scattered here and there over the whole domain.

The chief occupations of the freeman, when not engaged in the business of war, were that of the chase and hawking,

at which the noble ladies frequently attended. The domestic duties of the house and the cultivation of the land were consigned to the aged men, women, children, and the serfs. Their food, like their dwellings and dress, was simple, consisting of wild apples, the flesh of recently killed animals taken in the chase, coagulated with milk, etc. Their invitations to each other were frequent, and the banquets were always scenes of intoxication, gaming, dissipation, and quarreling, the latter frequently ending in bloodshed. Songs, of which they were extremely fond, and instrumental music, accompanied by naked dances amidst pointed swords and javelins, made up their social amusements. At their banquets matters of the greatest moment were discussed; but the decision was not given until the following day, when the excitement of the previous night's revelry had passed away, and left them comparatively cool and collected. Their drink was a beverage prepared, with little art, from barley or wheat; for wine made from the juice of the grape they were as yet unacquainted with; while they carried their love of gaming to such an extent, as even to stake on the final throw, when everything else was lost, their personal freedom itself. Honesty, integrity, and chastity were highly esteemed among them, and generosity towards vanquished enemies strongly marked the German character; to which may be added a spontaneous hospitality, a glowing love to the land of their fathers, and the most heroic bravery. Their great vices were their love of drinking, gaming, and fighting.

§ 3.

THE GERMAN WARS, FROM THE TIME OF THEIR CONFLICTS WITH THE ROMANS, UNTIL THE MIGRATIONS OF THE NATIONS.

A. Wars of the Cimbri and Teutones, against the Romans (B. C. 113—101).

B. The Conquests of the Romans on the left banks of the Rhine (B. C. 58—57).

The first authentic accounts of the Germans commence with the invasion of the Roman Empire, when in conjunction with the Gauls, and again under the Macedonian king, Perseus, the great nation of the Bastarnæ, carried on an unsuccessful war against the Romans. In 113 B.C., the Romans came again in contact with the Germans when in conjunction with the Cimbri, under the general name of Teutones, they defeated the consul Papirius Carbo on the confines of the Roman dominions. They next appear under the powerful monarch of the Marcomanni, *Ariovistus*, who assisted the Sequani against their common enemy the Ædui, whom they defeated. Ariovistus at length became the oppressor of both parties, and seized some of the territories on the left bank of the Rhine, belonging to the vassals of the Sequani; he also poured hosts of German troops into the district of the Gauls who were also oppressed by the Helvetians. The Gauls having applied to Cæsar for assistance, it was promptly rendered, when the Helvetians were defeated with great slaughter, and compelled to return to their dwellings at the foot of the Alps. The war between Ariovistus and Cæsar respecting the dominion of Gaul was determined by the battle of Vesentio, *Besançon*, B.C. 58, when the Germans were defeated, and compelled to recross the Rhine. Cæsar followed up the defeat of Ariovistus by the subjection of the Belgic German tribes; the Nervii, who fought until their nation and name were nearly extinguished; and the Aduatici (probably the same with the Tungri of Tacitus) and the Eburōnes. He twice crossed the Rhine into the territories of the Sicambri to secure the Gauls from the inroads of the Germans, but without any fixed result. Cæsar now resolved to engage the Germans as auxiliaries in

the Roman army, and took a number of them into his pay, whom he employed in the subjugation of Gaul, and afterwards (during the civil wars of Rome) against Pompey, who being defeated at Pharsālus, left Cæsar in possession of the empire of the world, B.C. 48.

From the time of Augustus, the territory of the Germans on the left bank of the Rhine was divided into Germania Superior and Inferior, and formed part of the Gallic province Belgica. For the defence of the frontier against the irruptions of the Germans towards the west, eight legions were stationed on the Middle and Lower Rhine, having their head-quarters at Mogontiacum, *Maynz or Mentz*, Colonia Ubi-
onum, or Agrippina, *Cologne*, and Castra Vetera, *Xanten*. On the Upper Rhine, beyond Mentz, such defences were considered unnecessary, as the fidelity of the German tribes in Germania Superior could be depended upon.

C. The Conquests of the Romans south of the Danube.—Subjection of the Rhætians, Vindelicians, and the Noricians, B.C. 15.

That a natural frontier boundary might be obtained for the protection of the northern portions of the Roman Empire against the Germans, as well as to secure the passes of the Alps, Augustus caused his sons-in-law, Drusus and Tiberius, to march against the German tribes betwixt the Alps and the Danube. The former advanced from the south by the valley of the Etsch, *Atagis*, whilst Tiberius came down from Helvetia. The Roman arms were victorious, but the Rhætians made a brave resistance, and it was not until the two Roman armies had combined that they submitted, when the passes of the Alps were secured to the Romans. Vindelicia, Noricum, and Rhætia, were now (B.C. 15) Roman provinces, and the Upper Danube became the boundary between Germany and the Roman Empire, for the security of which the Roman colony Augusta Vindelicorum, *Augsburg*, was established. By these conquests the incursions of the Germans towards the south were also restrained.

D. Conquests of the Romans in Germany Proper, from B.C. 12 to A.D. 16.

1) Campaigns of Drusus and Tiberius.

In order to subdue the tribes of Germany Proper, or the low German tribes, to the Roman dominion, Drusus,

assisted by his allies the Batavi and the Frisii, undertook four expeditions into their territories, B.C. 12—9; built additional fortresses on the Rhine (50); which formed the foundations of future cities and towns; fortified the heights of the Taunus, and the Aliso on the Upper Luppia, *Lippe*; and penetrated even to the Elbe.

The first campaign was entered upon in consequence of the attempts of the Sicambri and their confederates, the Usipetes and the Tencteri, to cross the Rhine. Drusus not only crossed the Rhine near the isles of Batavi, into the country of the Usipetes, but overran that of the *Sicambri*; and that he might the better attack the enemy, he constructed a canal, *Fosse Drusiana*, by which he connected the Rhine with the Isala, *Yssel*, and built a fleet of ships with which he conveyed his armies by the way of the North Sea (which he was the first to navigate) and the Amisia, *Ems*, into the middle of the country possessed by the Bructeri, whom he conquered. The Sicambrians, comprehending the designs of the Romans, resolved to oppose the progress of their arms, and confederated with the Cherusci and the Suevi. This compelled Drusus to undertake a second campaign: he again attacked the Usipetes and the Sicambri, and had penetrated the country of the *Cherusci* as far as the Visurgis, *Weser*, when he was suddenly arrested, by a rumour of the rising of the nations in his rear. Having vanquished the confederates at Arbalo and fortified Aliso, he returned. The *third campaign* (from Mogontiacum, *Mentz*,) was directed against the powerful and warlike tribe of the Catti, who had been drawn into the confederacy of the Cherusci by the Sicambrians; Drusus defeated them, and despoiled the greater portion of their country. After erecting a fortress on the heights of the Taunus against them, he retired; but again took the field in a *fourth campaign*, when he overran the territories of the Catti and Cherusci; and, crossing the Visurgis, *Weser*, advanced as far as the Albis, *Elbe*, where, alarmed at the appearance of some gigantic women, he feared to proceed any further. Hastening his retreat, he fell with his horse, broke his thigh, and died in the camp, not far from the Elbe, (B.C. 9.)

Tiberius succeeded Drusus in the command of the legions on the Rhine, but had recourse to stratagem, which he found to be more successful than the employment of force. He engaged many of the tribes to enter the Roman service, and thus brought all the nations from the Rhine to the Lower Elbe, together with the Suevi, to acknowledge the Roman sovereignty, (A.D. 4.)

2) The Marcomannic Empire, and the Cheruscian Confederacy.—Struggles of the Free Germans against the Romans, A.D. 7—10.

The extension of the Roman empire towards Suevia,

brought the Romans into contact with the Marcomannic empire, which embraced many of the Suevic tribes, the chief of which were the Semnones and the Langobardi. Tiberius arranged his forces so as to effect its destruction, and therefore resolved to attack it simultaneously on the west and south. Saturnius, the Roman governor of the German provinces on the Rhine, was to penetrate through the Hercynian forest, whilst Tiberius with the flower of the army was to precipitate himself upon Bohemia immediately from the Danube. The empire of Marobodius, (Marbod) was, however, for a while saved from destruction. An insurrection broke out in the Illyrian and Pannonian provinces, on the Adriatic Sea and on the Carnatic Alps, which compelled Drusus to conclude a treaty of peace and friendship with Marbod, and to turn against the rebels. After a severe struggle of four years' continuance, the revolted provinces were subdued. Germany now bid fair to become a Roman province, but the imprudence of Quinctilius Varus, the successor of S. Saturnius, destroyed the advantages already gained, and occasioned a confederation of the tribes of Lower Germany to be formed, having for its object the throwing off the Roman yoke, which had been rendered oppressive by unjust taxation, the introduction of Roman provincial laws and customs, and the destruction of the native language, by the compulsory use of the Roman. At the head of the confederation was Arminius (Herman), a prince who had not only been educated at Rome, but had served in the Roman armies. Induced by a false report of the rising of the Amsivari or Sicambri, to proceed to the Ems, Varus allowed himself to be enticed into the Teutoburgian forest, where the Germans, under Herman, attacked him, and cut to pieces three of the finest legions which Rome could boast. Varus could not survive this defeat, and falling upon his sword, slew himself in despair, A.D. 9. By this event the Germans regained their liberty, and the Romans lost all their conquests beyond the Rhine. Augustus, fearing an insurrection among the Germans at Rome, compelled them to leave the city, and disbanded his German body-guard. The Cherusci, among whom Herman was born, now became the most powerful people of Germany.

3) The Campaigns of Germanicus, A.D. 14—16.

Germanicus endeavoured to recover the lost provinces in Germany, nor were his efforts entirely unsuccessful. He met Herman, the Cheruscian leader, at Idistavisus Campus (Idistaviss), now Hastenbach near Minden, and defeated him. The disaffection of the tribes on the other side of the Weser, however, compelled his return. On his passage by the way of the Ems and the North Sea to the Rhine, a great portion of his fleet was wrecked during a tempest; notwithstanding his loss, he resolved to carry out the objects of the campaign; but while preparing so to do he was recalled to Rome by the Emperor Tiberius.

In the first campaign, Germanicus set out from *Castra Vetera* (*Xanten*), and crossed the Rhine towards the north-east. Entering the country of the *Marsi*, he laid it waste: the rising of the *Bructeri* and the *Usipetes*, however, checked his progress, and compelled his return. In his second campaign, he ascended the Lahn, and fell upon the *Catti*, whom he defeated. From *Castra Vetera*, Germanicus passed through *Aulus Cæcina*, and attacked the *Cherusci* both by sea and land, but could not make much impression upon that warlike nation. Returning through the defiles of the Teutoburgian forest, the Romans beheld the skeletons of their fathers and kindred who had perished there, under Varus, six years before; these Germanicus commanded to be buried, which was done with much solemnity. Both divisions of the Roman army sustained considerable loss in its return to Rome. Herman harassed the rear, which he hung upon with his army, and a great number were wrecked in a storm off the North Sea. The third campaign was on a much larger scale than the two former. The fleet consisted of 1,000 sail, which set out from the *Zuyder Zee* to the mouth of the Ems; the army penetrated by land to the banks of the Weser, where they vanquished the Germans at *Idistavisus*, on the right bank of the Weser. A second victory followed, obtained through the superior skill of the Romans. The advantages, however, which resulted from these conquests could not be permanently retained; an insurrection of the tribes on the other side of the Weser once more compelled the return of Germanicus.

Thus Germany was again free; its liberty, however, had been dearly purchased, at the expense of the lives of thousands of its noblest warriors. The victorious sword of Rome was now sheathed with bitter regrets for the past; its only hope was from the dissensions which manifested themselves in the confederations and leagues formed amongst the various tribes, and the jealousies which existed between the principal nations. These breaches the friends

(*amisi*) and allies of Rome fostered, and by their intrigues tended to widen, until at last internal warfare brought them into subjection to each other.

War between Arminius (Herman) and Marbod (A.D. 17).

By the alliance of Marobodius (Marbod) with the Romans, it soon became evident to the Germans that the object of his ambition was not so much the independency of Germany, as the establishment of a firm and lasting empire for himself. Hence the Cheruscan league was joined by the bravest of the Suevic tribes, the Langobardi and the Semnones, who broke off from Marbod and united in the confederation against the suspected despot. In a bloody but undecisive battle, which was fought in Saxony, Marbod was worsted, and retreated into Bohemia, whence he was driven by the Gothones under their prince Catwald, and took shelter in Ravenna, where Tiberius allowed him to remain, (A.D. 19.) Soon after, Herman, who was also suspected of aiming at absolute dominion, fell a victim to the treachery of his own relations, by whom he was assassinated (A.D. 22.) After these events had taken place, a long and sanguinary warfare between the German and Suevic tribes continued with unremitting ardour for the long period of 150 years.

E. The Batavian war of Liberation, (A.D. 69, 70.)

On the death of the Roman emperor Galba, the army of the Rhine proclaimed Vitellius, and accompanied him to Italy, where Vespasian contended with him for the empire. The alliance of the Romans having become burdensome to the Batavi, they took the opportunity of rising against them. Claudius Civilis, a Batavian, although bearing a Roman name, became their leader. At one time, the insurrection seems to have spread throughout all the tribes on the left bank of the Rhine, even amongst the Belgic Gauls. Inspired by the sacred songs of the prophetesses, and an inherent love of liberty, they advanced towards the confines of the Roman territory, and commenced their attacks. At the beginning of the revolt, Civilis feigned to be collecting an army in favour of Vespasian; but on the death of Vitellius, he shook off the Roman yoke, and all Gallia and the

Roman legions who possessed it, with the Ubi, rallied round his standard, and a new Gallic kingdom was proclaimed. On the advance of Cerealis, the Roman general, into the Gaulish territories to crush the rebellion, the Gauls with their usual fickleness and want of unity forsook Civilis, and the kingdom was dissolved. The Treveri who remained faithful to their leader, were cruelly slaughtered; whilst the Ubi, on the contrary, again joined the ranks of the Romans, and in conjunction with them attacked the Frisii and Chauci, who were hastening to assist Civilis, at Tolbiacum (*Zul-pich*), and cut them to pieces. This victory was followed by another at Xanten, when the Batavi retreated to the Delta of the Rhine, and once more became subject to Rome. The emperor imposed no taxes, nor collected any tribute, but wisely engaged that they should furnish troops to fight in the Roman armies, even against their own countrymen.

F. Aggressive Wars of the Germans—Attacks of the Germans on the Roman Empire.

The wars of the Romans with the Germans, in the middle of the second century, were of a defensive character. In order to protect their provinces on the right banks of the Rhine, (*agri decumates*), and on the left bank of the Danube, a frontier wall had been erected by the gradual advance of garrisons or forts, which extended from the Rhine over the Lahn and the Mayn, even to the Danube. This wall (*vallum Romanum*) the Germans had made several breaches in, and had battered down many of the garrisons or forts, which the Romans (now engaged in foreign wars) were not able to protect; still less able were they to maintain their frontier on the southern Danube. Thus, when, in the second century, the nations on the Vistula and the Oder rose and poured forth their hosts upon their southern and western neighbours, nothing could withstand them, and they possessed themselves of the whole of the territory between the Black Forest and the Danube to Dacia.

At a later date (A.D. 165,) another fearful inundation took place, consisting of hordes of nations hitherto unheard of, as the Vandals and Alans. They swept over the provinces like a torrent, and ascending the defiles of the Alps, did not stay their progress until they reached the immediate neighbourhood of Aquileia, in Upper Italy. On their arrival,

the Roman legions were chiefly occupied in the eastern portion of the Roman empire, against the warlike Parthians. The war consequent on this descent of German tribes upon the Roman empire is known in history as the “*Marcomannic war*” the Marcomanni being best known to the Romans, having been engaged with them before in the time of Marbod, (A.D. 167—180.) The emperor, Marcus Aurelianus, marched thrice over the Alps into Pannonia, against the barbarians, but could only partially subdue them. To stay their ravages, he took a large number of them into the pay of the empire, as mercenaries, and distributed them throughout the various provinces. He died at Vindebona, *Vienna*, after having struggled for thirteen years to regain the broken border lines of the empire. Commodus, his son, unlike the father, preferred peace to an unprofitable and destructive war, and therefore entered into a treaty with the Marcomanni, by which he engaged to resign all the Roman fortresses in their territory on condition of the payment of an annual tribute, and the liberation of all captives.

This success on the part of those Germans in the Marcomannic war, revived the slumbering energies of other tribes; hence other and even more powerful leagues were formed during the third century of the Christian era, as the *Alemannic league*, (All men,) composed of all the tribes from the Mayn, along the Rhine to the Alps—the *Frankish confederacy* on both sides of the Lower-Rhine—and the *Saxon*, from the Elbe nearly to the Rhine—the three ancient divisions of the tribes.

A more important and extensive confederacy than either of the above, and once which exerted a more powerful influence on the Roman empire, was the *Gothic*, in eastern Germany, embracing the Vandals and Alans.

The *Western German Confederation* had, in the third and fourth centuries, not only regained the territory lying betwixt the Upper Rhine and Danube, but had thoroughly Germanized it, and directing their course towards the south-west, had infringed upon the boundaries of the Roman empire. The Alemanni made themselves masters of the Upper Rhine and the Danube, while the Franks, crossing the Lower Rhine, invaded Gaul. The Saxons were chiefly occupied in piratical excursions to the Gallic and

British coasts. The Goths, a tribe of the Eastern Germans, descended southward, and not only conquered the Roman Dacia, and extended themselves even to the Theiss, but penetrated into Mœsia and Thracia, both by sea and land, ravaging and plundering all the cities on the Greek and Asiatic coasts, and on the shores of the Pontus Euxinus, *Black Sea*. After the fourth century, they were divided into Ostro, or Eastern Goths, inhabiting the shores of the Euxine; and the Visi, or Western Goths, occupying Dacia.

About the end of the fourth century both the Alemanni and the Franks had obtained a firm footing within the territories of the Roman empire. They were at first under the supremacy of the Romans, the Alemanni in Alsatia, Alsace, and the Franks in the northern Netherlands, on the Batavic Islands, and on the banks of the Mèuse and Scheldt, where the appellation of Sales (*Salian Franks*) was applied to them as well as to those who were settled in the Roman territories.

II. The Migrations of the Nations.

§ 4.

DISSOLUTION OF THE GOTHIC EMPIRE BY THE HUNS.

While the Visigoths in Dacia maintained a peaceful relation with the Roman empire, receiving large sums of money from the emperor, and were occupied in agricultural pursuits in the rich plains north of the Danube, other Gothic tribes were pursuing their conquests in the plains of Sarmatia, and, under the brave and warlike Hermanric, founded an empire, which not only embraced all the Slavic tribes between the Euxine and Baltic Seas, but also a great portion of the Finnish Ugrian tribes on the Wolga. After a transient existence, this kingdom was dissolved by the Huns, who, under their leader, Attila, advanced from their primitive habitations, beyond the Ural Mountains, in eastern Asia. In alliance with the Alani, *Alans*, between the Wolga and the Don, the Huns attacked the Ostrogoths, whose king, Hermanric, now 110 years of age, proved too feeble to resist the multitudes that poured down upon him. His army being completely vanquished, his spirit could not brook so signal a defeat, and it is said that he put an end to his existence by falling on his sword (A.D. 375.) The Ostrogoths now retreated upon the territories of the Visi-

goths, in Dacia, followed by the Huns, when the Visigoths, unable to stem the torrent, retreated to the right bank of the Danube, and earnestly solicited settlements in the wilds of Mœsia and Thracia, within the Roman territory. Valens permitted a large portion of them (the Thervingi) to settle on the right bank of the Danube, in Mœsia, on condition that they embraced the Christian (Arian) faith, and assisted in the defence of the Roman frontiers. Disputes, however, arose between them, and the Roman governors acted with great severity during a famine, (probably feigned) the necessaries of life were sold to them at an exorbitant price; and, when their gold was gone, their children were exchanged for a few days' sustenance. This gave rise to an insurrection, and having been joined by the Ostrogoths, Huns, and Alans, the Thervingi crossed the Danube, and devastated Thracia, massacring, without pity, men, women, and children, and burning up the crops, etc. In vain the Emperor Valens strove to drive them back. Giving them battle at Adrianople, (A.D. 378,) he was defeated with terrible slaughter; sixty thousand Roman soldiers were left dead on the field. Valens retreating, took shelter in a hut, in which he was accidentally burned to death, and the empire left without defence. The Goths left the city of Adrianople, declaring that they did not make war upon stones. Advancing rapidly on Constantinople, after some unimportant skirmishes, they returned west through Macedonia, Epirus, and Dalmatia, marking their passage by conflagration and blood. On the accession of Theodosius, he effected, by intrigue and persuasion, what he could not hope to do by an appeal to arms. He, therefore, took every opportunity of ingratiating himself with the Gothic nation, now separated from their confederates. One chieftain after another was engaged in the service of the Romans, with their followers, as auxiliaries, until the whole nation at length was induced to lay down its arms, (A.D. 382) six years after having crossed the Danube.

Arcadius (A.D. 395) succeeded Theodosius in the Eastern empire, and proved a feeble monarch; neglecting to pay the accustomed tribute, and refusing to promote the Gothic chieftains according to their valour and ability. Alaric, of the royal house of the Balthi, having received an insulting reply to his application for promotion, roused

the warlike passions of the Goths, and announced his intention to attack the empire. Joined by numerous Scythian hordes, he crossed the frozen Danube, and advanced to Constantinople, laying waste Illyricum, Macedonia, and Greece, (A.D. 396.) To Athens he granted a capitulation; the rest of the country he gave up to the fury and rapacity of his soldiers. The Eastern empire having engaged the brave (Vandal?) Stilicho, who had been long in the service of the Western empire, opposed the headlong Alaric. By skilful address he drew the Gothic king into a district of mountain gorges in Arcadia, where he was hemmed in, and, as it were, besieged. The intrigues of the court, however, prevented these advantages being followed up. Stilicho was ordered to evacuate the Eastern empire, and peace was concluded with Alaric, who was rewarded with the præfecture of Illyricum, and made master general of the Illyrian infantry. Alaric availed himself of his favourable position, and trained his soldiers agreeably to the Roman discipline. Having (A.D. 402) engaged the Greeks as his allies, he resolved to pass the borders of the Eastern, and attack the Western empire. Crossing the Julian Alps, he invaded Italy, ravaging, unopposed in his course, several provinces. On his arrival at Adige, he obliged the emperor to flee, and to seek refuge at Ravenna, which place subsequently became the adopted residence of Honorius. Stilicho, who, during the winter, had obtained soldiers from Gaul and Britain, in the spring of A.D. 403, marched at the head of his army against the enemy. Alaric was defeated in two successive engagements; first at Pollentia, and then at Verona, after which he was compelled to evacuate Italy and retire into Pannonia.

Scarcely had the Gothic invasion terminated, when Radagais or Radogast, crossed the Alps with 200,000 warriors, composed of various German tribes, amongst which were the Burgundians, Vandali, Selingi, Gepidæ, Suevi, and the Alani; these with their wives and children, entered Pannonia, (A.D. 406) leaving the German territory comparatively a desert. Stilicho attacked the army of Radagais, near Florence, and drove him back from point to point without giving him an opportunity of fighting a battle, until at last he besieged him on the heights of Friuli, and compelled him to surrender at discretion; Radagais, who trusted to the honour of Honorius for the preservation of his life, was put to death. Stilicho was now once more hailed as the saviour of Italy.

§ 5.

GENERAL IMMIGRATION OF THE GERMANIC RACES
INTO THE COUNTRIES OF THE WEST.

When Alaric threatened Italy with an invasion, (see § 4) Honorius recalled the Roman legions from the Rhine, to defend the Italian peninsula. The German provinces being abandoned, soon became a prey to the marauding bands of Germans, in search of territory and glory under their different leaders. Hence, in A.D. 406, we find that tribes of the Suevic race, Vandals and Alani, have penetrated through Gaul into Spain—the Burgundians have settled in Eastern Gaul, on the upper Rhine, and the Salian* Franks taking advantage of the absence of the Roman legions, have settled themselves finally in Northern Gaul.

In A.D. 406, Stilicho being charged as the author of the public misfortunes, was assassinated, and the base Emperor Honorius was now left to carry out any dark design he might conceive of. The hostages placed in the hands of the Romans by the barbarians, as security for their fidelity, were all cruelly massacred, on which occasion, 30,000 soldiers of the confederates went over to Alaric, and urged him to avenge their wrongs. Alaric's demand for compensation was treated with contempt, and the invasion of Italy was resolved upon. In A.D. 408, he traversed the principal cities of Upper Italy, and appeared before the walls of Rome, closely besieging the city, the inhabitants of which, to secure their own safety, and induce the departure of Alaric from before their walls, paid to him a ransom of 5000 lbs. weight of gold, 30,000 of silver, 3000 of pepper, together with silk garments and skins of purple dye. With these Alaric retired into Tuscany, where he was joined by the Gothic and German slaves who had fled from Rome.

The emperor having violated his treaties with Alaric, the Gothic king again besieged the capital, took possession of their corn magazine, and thus depriving them of the means of sustenance, summoned them to surrender. After a show of resistance they opened their gates to the conqueror. Upon condition that another emperor should be chosen, he generously spared the city. The choice fell upon Attalus,

who proving as incapable as Honorius, was displaced A.D. 409, when the throne was again offered to the latter monarch, who received the proposal with disdain, and treated the Gothic king with indignity. Alaric now appeared before the city for the third time, the Salarian gate (*Porta Salaria*) was opened to him in the night,* and the city was given up to pillage for six (?) days. The plunderers then set fire to it in several places; only a small part of it, however, was reduced to ashes. Alaric retired towards the south of Italy, to Campania, with immense booty, and in a few months after, died at Cosentia, whilst projecting the conquest of Sicily and Africa. He was buried in the bed of a neighbouring rivulet, near Cozenza, and the captives employed to dig his grave were put to death, lest they should divulge the place of his sepulture. To Alaric succeeded Ataulphus, or Adolf, who having contracted an alliance with Rome, led the Visigoths into Aquitaine (A.D. 412), and into Spain (A.D. 414). Wallia, the second in succession from Adolf, formed a new contract with the empire, and declared war against the other barbarians who had invaded Spain. After a series of engagements, he exterminated the Silingi, and drove the Suevi, the Alani, and the Vandals, into the fastnesses of the mountains of Galicia. Having restored the rest of Spain to the western empire, he retired to Tolosa *Toulouse*, in Aquitaine, making it the capital of his new kingdom, which now extended to the Pyrenees, and embraced Aquitania and Narbonensis Gallia Septimania; he died A.D. 418, and was followed by Dietrich (Theodoric.)

Amongst all the provinces of the Western Empire, none had suffered less from the invasions of the Germans than Britain and Northern Africa; the latter, however, was soon lost to Rome, through the intrigues of the favourite Ætius. Jealous of the rising reputation of Bonifacius, or Boniface, the lieutenant-general of the African provinces, Ætius persuaded the Empress Placidia to recal him, and at the same time privately entreated him not to return, but to have recourse to arms. Diffident of his own resources, Boniface invited over from Vandalasia, in Spain, the Gothic

* Some doubt is entertained as to whether the gate was opened to him, or whether he took the city by treachery. Whether or no, Rome was captured by a barbarian.

king, Genseric, who soon after took possession of the African provinces with 500,000 of his troops, and thus founded the Vandal Empire in Africa, A.D. 429, (see § 9.)

On the decline of the Western Empire, the legions of Rome were withdrawn from Southern Britain, when it was assailed by the Picts and Scots. Vortigern, who at that time enjoyed the supremacy over the Britons, availed himself of the assistance of the Jutes, who, under their chieftains Hengist and Horsa, had landed on the coast, A.D. 445, in one of their marauding incursions. The Picts and Scots were driven back, and the Isle of Thanotos *Thanet* was awarded to the Jutes as their pay. Subsequently the Jutes increased their demands, which not being acceded to, they joined the Picts and Scots, and overran the island from west to east; reverses, however, followed, and they were expelled from Britain. Soon after they left the Isle of Thanotos, then separated from the British coast by a river above a mile in width, and set sail for the Cimbric Isle, (*Juteland*.) Returning with fresh bands of adventurers and professing peace, they obtained the confidence of the Britons, but whilst celebrating the pacification, by an act of treachery they massacred the British nobles, and took their king prisoner; Cantwara, *Kent*, was soon after subdued, and in the course of time, seven (?) Anglo-Saxon states or kingdoms were formed, *viz.*, Cantwara, Suth Seaxas, West Seaxas, East Seaxas, Northan-Humbria, East Anglia, and Murcia, or Myrcna. The native Britons retired into Cornwealas, *Cornwall*, Cambria, *Wales*, and the districts of the western coasts of Britain; they also emigrated to the opposite shores of Gaul, in Armorica, *Bretagne*.

§ 6.

DISSOLUTION OF THE HUNNISH EMPIRE.

The Huns having abandoned to the Siempi the pastures of Asia on the confines of China, by a march of thirteen hundred leagues, at length arrived in the countries of Eastern Europe; increased in their course by adherents from the territories through which they passed, they bore down upon the Alani, whom they subdued, and then

advanced west upon the Ostrogoths, who had fertilized the plains north of the Danube and of the Black Sea. Having conquered them, they wandered for fifty years in the plains of Southern Russia, Poland, and Hungary, where they pastured their herds, and pursued the chase. Under their King Attila, or Etzel, (the scourge of God) who reigned conjointly with his brother Bleda (434 to 444), and alone from 444 to 453, they again became formidable, and for a time occupied an important position in the history of Europe.

The two emperors of the Eastern and Western Roman Empires having combined, in order to wrest Africa from the Vandals, Genseric sent ambassadors to Attila, King of the Huns, to induce him to invade the Western Empire. After defeating the Greeks under Theodosius in three great battles, the army of the Huns advanced to the very walls of Constantinople, which had recently suffered from an earthquake. Not being prepared to undertake sieges, Attila, (whose ministers had been bribed by presents of large sums of money,) was induced to retire beyond the Danube, on condition that the usual annual tribute (700 lbs. of gold) granted by Arcadius, was increased, and a large portion of the Thracian provinces ceded to him.

Attila was now acknowledged as king of kings, and soon after extended his dominion from the confines of China, to the Atlantic; he ruled over the Ostrogoths on the Lower Danube, the Gepidæ in Dacia, the Bastarnæ, Heruli, Rugi, and almost the whole of European Germany and Sarmatia. Excited by Genseric against the Visigoths, then in alliance with the Western Empire, and thirsting for the possession of the fertile plains of Italy, Attila on being offered the hand of Honoria, the sister of Valentinian III., demanded the half of the Western Empire as her dowry. Being refused, he ravaged Illyricum and Greece, and subsequently advanced from his *Ringus* or royal village, on the Theiss, to the banks of the Rhine, to occupy Gaul, taking with him (according to Jornades), upwards of 500,000 soldiers, composed of Scythians, and the various Germanic nations, whom he compelled to follow in his train. The army under Ætius, the Roman general, was no less a medley, being composed of soldiers of different races and tribes; Metz was destroyed, and the inhabitants massacred; Tongres was also ruined, and Orleans, which the Alans had promised to surrender on the arrival of Attila, was besieged. The timely arrival of Ætius, and the Visigothic king Theodoric, compelled Alaric to retire just as Orleans was on the eve of

falling into his hands; he then marched to Chalons, whither he was followed by Ætius and the Visigoths, who halted near a little hillock which divided the two armies, now opposite to each other. The battle which followed was terrible and obstinate, 162,000 men were left dead on the field of the Catalaunian plain, amongst whom was the Gothic monarch, Theodoric. Attila was however defeated, and retired from Gaul, which Ætius, whose army was not in a condition to follow up the victory, allowed him to do without molestation.

Attila returned to Pannonia, but in the course of the following year (452), having again been refused the hand of Honoria, he invaded Italy, when he destroyed Aquileia, and ravaged Lombardy. At the intercession of pope Leo I., accompanied by the ambassadors and senate of Rome, he retired, and soon after died of intoxication, at a festival in celebration of his marriage, 453; his empire perished with him. Ardaric, his favourite, founded the monarchy of the Gepidæ, in Dacia, the very seat of the Hunnish power. The Ostrogoths took possession of Pannonia; and Irnak, the youngest son of Attila, retired with the Huns into Little Tartary, where they were subsequently enslaved by the Igours, a Siberian nation.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

FIRST PERIOD.

From the Dissolution of the Western Roman Empire to the Accession of the Carolingians and Abassides, 476—752 (750).

§ 7.

GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF EUROPE AT THE END OF THE FIFTH CENTURY.

1. IN Western Spain: the kingdom of the Suevi. 2. In Spain and Gaul (to the Loire); the empire of the Visigoths *West Goths*. 3. In Northern Gaul and Western Germany; the kingdoms of the Franks, (until 486, subject to the Western Roman Empire.) 4. In Southern Gaul, (embracing also the modern Savoy, and a portion of Switzerland), the kingdom of the Burgundiones. 5. In Britain, the British kingdoms, and the early Anglo-Saxon states. 6. In Scotland, the kingdom of the Picts and the Scots. 7. In Northern Germany, the Frizii and the Saxons: in Central Germany, north of the Danube, the kingdom of the Thuringians (comprising various Suevic races); on the left bank of the middle Danube, the kingdom of the Langobardi; north of the Danube, (in the modern Hungary, Transylvania, and Wallachia,) the kingdom of the Gepidæ. 8. In Italy and the country south of the Danube and Illyria, the kingdom of the Ostrogoths *East Goths*. 9. The empire of the Vandals, embracing Northern Africa, the islands of Corsica, Sardinia, the Balearic and the Pityusæ isles. 10. The Eastern Roman Empire, *Byzantine or Greek Empire*, embracing the Western European provinces of Thracia, Macedonia, Mœsia, and Græcia.

In North-eastern Europe, were the Slaves, from the Elbe to the Danube; north and east of them were the Fins or Tchudes; on the Don were the Turkish Avars, and in the plains of the Pontus were the Huns, who, since the death of Attila, had withdrawn from the countries north of the Danube, and intermingled with the various Turkish races of Western Asia.

A. The West.

§ 8.

THE KINGDOMS IN ITALY.

I. The Italian empire under Odoacer 476—493.

Odoacer, the commander of the federated soldiers in Italy, composed of the Herulians, the Rugians, and other Gothic tribes, demanded as a reward for his services, the third part of Italy, which being refused, he deposed the youthful Emperor, Romulus Augustulus, and exiled him to Campania, declaring that one chief was sufficient. The Western Roman Empire (476), being thus put an end to, and the title of Roman emperor abolished, Odoacer caused himself to be proclaimed King of Italy. He did not change the imperial government; the senate of Rome continued to assemble as usual, the consuls were annually chosen, and the municipal and provincial authorities remained as before. Zeno, the emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire, however, refused to recognise Odoacer; and, but for the war in which he was then engaged with Theodoric, the Gothic monarch, would have endeavoured to restore the Italian provinces to the empire. At this critical period, the King of the Ostrogoths proposed to the Byzantine emperor Zeno, a plan by which he should be allowed to re-conquer Italy, with his soldiers, and govern it as a dependency of the empire. Zeno gladly availed himself of the opportunity of getting rid of a neighbour so formidable, and, regardless of the fate of Italy, concluded the treaty with Theodoric. The Ostrogoths left Thrace, and crossing Mœsia, Pannonia, and the Julian Alps, entered Italy. After fighting three pitched battles, Odoacer quitted the open field, and shut himself up in the fortress of Ravenna, where he stood a siege of three years. At length however, he was obliged to surrender, and with his family and followers was put to death (A.D. 493), at the close of a banquet of reconciliation.

II. Empire of the Ostrogoths in Italy, 493—555.

Theodoric the Great, (493—526) was recognised King of Italy by the Emperor Anastasius, who also con-

ferred upon Theodoric several other provinces, as Illyricum, etc. The Goths soon after mastered the territory between the Danube and the Alps, and obtained Sicily from the Vandals, when the imperial residence was sometimes fixed at Ravenna, and sometimes at Verona or Bern, hence his name of Dietrich von Bern, (the designation given him by the Germans). Theodoric was less solicitous for the extension of his monarchy by conquest, than for its internal prosperity, and during the whole thirty-three years of his reign, only took up arms to defend the frontiers of his kingdom against the Franks and the Burgundiones.

In the war between the Franks and the Visi or West Goths, now united with the Ostro or East Goths, Theodoric took part with his grandson Amalric, and at the conclusion of the struggle, added to his territory the country lying between the Durance and the sea.

Internal History and Government of Theodoric.

On the subjection of Italy, the Goths had been so long engaged in war, that they had lost the habit of labour, hence they would not cultivate the waste districts with which Italy abounded, but chose out of the estates of the Romans one third of their possessions, and probably imposed on them also the handing over of one third of their crops, which perhaps were compensated for by the liberties of the Romans being secured to them by Theodoric, who allowed the constitution of Italy to remain unchanged; the legislation and the senate continued as before, whilst the governors of the provinces were usually selected from the Roman people, to whom also were committed the interests of trade and commerce, arms being the exclusive occupation of the Goths, to whom was entrusted the sole defence of the kingdom. Towards the close of Theodoric's reign, the Romans were not allowed even to wear a sword. At first the dominion of Theodoric over the Romans was absolute and despotic, but over the Goths his power was limited and circumscribed. Although Theodoric had embraced Arianism during his residence (as an hostage) at Constantinople, yet he granted perfect toleration to the Catholics. Anxious to preserve the Roman monuments from spoliation, he assigned an annual revenue for their restoration; he likewise encouraged agriculture and commerce, and commenced the draining of the Pontine marshes. Towards the close of his life Theodoric became irritable and suspicious to a degree, in consequence of the many obscure conspiracies entered into to restore the Roman empire. Hence the end of his reign was sullied by the cruel death of two conspirators, the senators Bœthius and Symmachus, whom he condemned more perhaps on suspicion, than on any proof of real guilt. He died on the 30th of August, 526, just as he was about to set on foot a persecution of the Catholics of Italy, in retaliation for that of the Arians at Constantinople.

To Theodoric succeeded Athalaric, under the guar-

dianship of his mother Amalasonta, who governed over the Ostrogoths in Italy and Provence, and reigned as regent. Athalaric, who gave himself up to drunkenness and debauchery, died of disease in 534, at the early age of sixteen, and Amalasonta was allowed to choose her cousin Theudat, or Theodatus, as the future partner of her throne. Soon after, she was arrested by order of her colleague, and strangled whilst taking a bath, 535. After her death, the Emperor Justinian under the pretext of avenging her cause, prepared for the invasion of Italy, which he resolved to do by the same general who had acquired such glory in defeating the Vandals in Africa.

Commencement of The Eighteen Years' War between the Ostrogoths and the Eastern Empire, (533—553.) Belisarius, whose army amounted to 4,000 horse, and 3,000 Isaurian foot soldiers, landed in Sicily in 535, and in the first campaign conquered that island. In 536 he transported his army to Reggio in Campania, and proceeded along the coast, accompanied by his fleet, until he arrived at Naples. Suddenly the Calabrians passed over to the standard of the empire, when the Goths perceived that they had been betrayed, and Theodatus, like a coward, shut himself up in Rome whilst Naples was besieged by the enemy, to whom it surrendered. The Goths, who yet numbered 250,000 warriors, became dispirited and dispersed. Under Vitiges, whom they elected king in the room of Theodatus, who had been killed by a private enemy, 536, they again assembled. Vitiges evacuated the capital, and fell back upon Ravenna, to restore the discipline of his army. In his extremity, he demanded the succour of the Franks, when a dreadful invasion of that barbarian people took place, in which Milan and Genoa were destroyed. In 538, the Goths under Vitiges, appeared before Rome, and besieged it for a whole year, during which period the Gothic army was almost annihilated, either by the sword or famine, the pressure of which nearly destroyed the inhabitants and garrison of Rome, whose courage was only kept up by the intrepidity and perseverance of Belisarius. The Goths retired, and in 539, Vitiges surrendered the city of Ravenna, and was allowed to end his days in comparative affluence at Constantinople. Belisarius was recalled by Justinian, and on his retirement, the Goths of Pavia, the only city that held out

against the Romans, elected Hildebald as their king. Under his second successor Totilla, the broken fortunes of the Goths were revived, and they became almost as powerful as before the commencement of the war. The lost territories were recovered. Belisarius being withdrawn from Africa, where he was quelling an insurrection, was again despatched to Italy, but without an army. On the arrival of Narses with supplies, 552, a dispute having arisen respecting the plan of the campaign, Belisarius was again recalled, and the war was committed to Narses alone, who received the title of Proconsul. The army of Narses, and that of his followers, including his Langobardic and Herulic auxiliaries, amounted to thirty thousand men. With these he defeated the Goths at Tajina, and Totilla was slain, 552. Tejas was next raised to the Ostrogothic throne of Pavia, but at the battle of Nocera he was slain, and the Gothic dominion in Italy was at an end, 553. One portion of the Goths capitulated, on condition of being permitted to retire from Italy, whilst a yet larger number induced two Alemannic princes to undertake the invasion of Italy. Joined by a large body of Franks, they entered the Italian territories, but Narses completely routed the combined forces, and compelled the remnant of the Goths to submit, 555. Italy now became a province of the Eastern Empire, the government of which was administered by an exarch, Narses being the first.

III.—Byzantine Government in Italy, 555—558.

For thirteen years after the victories of Narses, Italy was governed in the name of the emperor of Constantinople by Exarchs, who resided at Ravenna; but in 568, the Langobardic invasion took place, and the exarchate was limited by the conquests of the Lombards to Ravenna, the Pentapolis, *la Romagna* and some small possessions on the eastern coast.

IV.—The Kingdom of the Langobardi or Lombards, 568—774.

On their return from Italy, the Lombards, who had mainly contributed to the conquest of that country by the valiant auxiliaries they had furnished to Narses, engaged in an expedition against the Gepidæ, under the leadership of their heroic prince Alboin, heir to the throne. The youthful

warrior had before slain the King of the Gepidæ and effected his escape, and afterwards inflicted a fresh outrage on that nation by seizing the fair Rosamunde, the daughter of Cunimunde, one of their princes. This hostility broke out on the accession of Alboin and Cunimunde to the throne of their fathers. The former sought the assistance of the Saxons, and obtained the help of the Khan of the Avars, with whom he stipulated a division of the territory of the Gepidæ, in the event of their being subdued, and also the cession of the Lombard territories, engaging to seek his fortune elsewhere. The Gepidæ were overthrown in a great battle, 566, and the Lombards gave up Pannonia and Noricum, of which they had held undisputed possession for forty-two years, to their allies. Alboin now prepared for the conquest of Italy; twenty thousand Saxons, and all the Gepidæ who had fallen under his sway, were enrolled in his battalions, and amongst his allies were the Boiars, *Bavarians*. The exarch Longinus, who had succeeded the aged Narses, accused, probably without foundation, of inviting the Lombards to invade Italy, and thus to avenge himself on the Empress Sophia, by whom he had been displaced, shut himself up in Ravenna. Pavia sustained a siege of three years, when it surrendered, and was made the capital of the Lombard kingdom. During the siege of Pavia, the Lombards made an irruption into Provence, the conquest of which they achieved. All the great towns in the interior of Italy capitulated, and were divided amongst the Lombardian dukes; but those on the coast, as Pisa, Rome, Gaeta, Naples, Amalfi, Ravenna, etc., were faithful to the Greeks, and opened their gates for the reception of the fugitive wanderers from the besieged cities of the interior. The numerous inhabitants driven out of Venetia, found a refuge in the Lagunes of the Adriatic, and had the Lombards understood the arts used in sieges, not any portion of Italy would have been left to the Eastern Empire.

Alboin, three years and a half after the fall of Pavia, was assassinated by the order of Rosamunde, to whom he had at a banquet sent the skull of her father filled with wine, commanding her "*to drink with her father.*" After the death of Alboin, she escaped to the exarch Longinus, accompanied by the regicide Helmichis. Captivated with the exarch, she poisoned Helmichis, but was compelled by him to finish the contents of the fatal cup, when she expired.

On the death of Alboin, (573) Clef, or Kleph, was

elected to the vacant throne, and during his reign the Lombard kingdom was extended over nearly the whole of Italy, only a few maritime districts on the coast being reserved to the Greeks. Kleph had occupied the throne only eighteen months, when he was assassinated by one of his pages. At his death the throne continued vacant for ten years, during which period an oligarchy prevailed, each province, of which there were thirty-six, being governed by a duke or president, the chief among whom were the Dukes of Friuli and Beneventum. To control the power of the dukes, and to protect the rights of the people, it was afterwards found necessary to appoint a chief; hence Antheric, the son of Kleph, was raised to the vacant throne. Under this sovereign, the conversion of the Lombards from the Arian to the Catholic faith was attempted by Theodolinda, a Bavarian princess, the consort of Antheric. Under succeeding monarchs, the Lombard kingdom was considerably extended at the expense of the Byzantines, who lost all their territories but some districts in Calabria and around Naples. Rome itself at length was surrounded by the Lombards, and Ravenna was already in their possession. The pope, Stephen II., in his distress, accompanied by his clergy, covered with sackcloth and ashes, crossed the Alps into Francia, and supplicated the assistance of Pepin the Short, *le Bref*, whom he crowned for the second time, and anointed with a blessed oil, said to be miraculous. Pepin commanded the Lombards to restore the Pentapolis, as well as Carni, and Ceccano; in the Roman duchy, which being refused, the Franks passed the Alps and compelled the Lombards to retire upon Pavia, to which the Franks laid siege. The pope fearing that the supremacy of the Franks might be as fatal as that of the Lombards, mediated a peace, by the terms of which the disputed possessions were to be restored to the papal see. Astolphus, the Lombard monarch, however, on the departure of the Franks, refused the cession of the lands, and prepared for future resistance. In the second campaign urged upon the Franks by Pope Stephen, the Lombards were driven from before Rome, and again took refuge in Pavia, which after a siege of some months capitulated, and Pepin compelled the restoration of the cities of Ravenna, Æmili, Centapoli, and the duchy of Rome, which were restored to the church and not to the empire; thus laying the foundation of the temporal

power of the Roman See. Astolphus died 756, and Pope Stephen II. in 757. In 773, Charlemagne forced the passage of the Alps on behalf of Pope Stephen III., and demanded of Didier, who had succeeded Astolphus, the fulfilment of the conditions imposed upon his predecessors. Pavia was besieged, and Didier with his family were given up to Charles, who sent them to a prison at Liege. The Lango-bardic kingdom was now incorporated with that of the Franks, but the duchy of Beneventum refused to submit to the authority of the conqueror, and became an asylum for the Lombardian refugees from the other provinces, 774. See § 20.

§ 9.

THE EMPIRE OF THE VANDALS IN AFRICA, 429—534.

Extent of the Vandal Empire. *a.* in Africa.—In the beginning, (429–30,) the empire embraced the Eastern portion of Numidia, Africa Propria, and Byzacene (the Syrtis district). After 430, on the defeat of Boniface, and the fall of Carthage, the Rome of Africa, the Vandal empire extended along the Northern coast, from the Pillars of Hercules, to the extreme limits of Cyrenacia. *b.* In the Middle Sea, *Mediterranean*, the Islands of Corsica, Sardinia, Sicily, and the Baleares and Pityusæ Islands—(476—491).

History. From the shores of the Baltic, in what is now called *Pomerania*, the Vandals were driven to take up their abode in Dacia and Sarmatia, then in Pannonia and Gallia, and at a later period, in 406, together with the Suevi and Alani, to migrate into Spain, where, being overpowered by the Goths, they subsequently, at the request of Theodosius, passed over to Africa, where, in 534, they were subdued by Justinian. On the death of Valentian III., by the hand of Maximus, who compelled his widow to marry him, in order to give him some show of right to the vacant throne, Eudoxia resolved to revenge the murder of her first husband by conspiring against the life of the second, regardless of the interests of Rome. She therefore invited Geiseric, the King of the Goths, over into Italy, who, not content with the possession of Africa, had already, by his armed fleets, which he obtained from Carthage, ravaged the coasts of Sicily and Italy. In 455, Geiseric disembarked at Ostia;

and Maximus was slain in a seditious tumult, and the defence of Rome was impossible; it was given up to pillage for fourteen days, after which the ships of the Vandals set sail from the Tiber with a booty, which it would have been impracticable to have carried off by land. Amongst the spoils, were thousands of noble captives, including Eudoxia the queen, and the two princesses. The Vandals were next employed in devastating the coasts of Illyria and Greece; and to clear the seas of these piratical fleets, the emperors of the East and West combined their ships, amounting to 1,000 sail, and entrusted the command to Belisarius. Geiseric, however, attacked the imperial fleet in the night and destroyed a large portion, whilst the rest were dispersed (468.)

On the accession of Odoacer, the king of the Heruli, to the kingdom of Italy (476,) the Vandals obtained, as pay for their services, the islands of Sardinia, Corsica, the Baleares, the Pityusæ, and the southern part of Sicily.

With the death of the founder Geiseric, who reigned thirty-seven years over Carthage, 477, commenced the decline of the Vandal empire. It was hastened by the persecutions carried on in the name of the Arian faith against the Catholics, and which were begun in the time of Geiseric, who had embraced the Arian faith. Gelimer having conspired against Hilderic, who succeeded Geiseric, took possession of the throne, when Justinian, who wished to regain the African provinces, profiting by the state of anarchy into which the kingdom was plunged, despatched Belisarius under the pretence of effecting the restoration of Hilderic. In 533, he landed at Caput Vedæ, and, by his consummate address, so Romanised the Africans, that Gelimer found himself with his Vandals in the midst of an enemy's territory. With all the troops he could muster Gelimer attacked Belisarius near Carthage, but only to be signally defeated; his army was routed, and he himself fled to the deserts of Numidia. Carthage surrendered without opposition. Gelimer recalling his brother from Sardinia, collected another army, fought and lost another battle, when Africa was reconquered, and the empire of the Vandals destroyed (534.)

Gelimer, who graced the triumphal procession of Belisarius into Constantinople, received ample possessions in Galatia, where he enjoyed the blessings of peace, surrounded in his old age by his dearest kinsmen

and friends. The bravest of the Vandals enlisted in the troops of the empire, whilst the rest, involved in the revolutions of Africa, in the course of time entirely disappear.

§ 10.

KINGDOM OF THE SUEVI IN SPAIN, 409—585.

The Suevi, after their immigration into Spain from Gaul, had settled in Galicia, which they divided with the Vandals; on the departure of the latter for Africa the Suevi occupied their territories also, and garrisoned the whole of Bœtica with Carthaginenses. Their first Christian (Catholic) king, Rechiar, was continually making inroads upon the Roman province of Tarraconensis, which at length drew upon him the vengeance of the Gothic king, Theodoric, who had engaged to combat the enemies of Honorius. The two armies met at Paramo, on the Obrego, where Rechiar was defeated, and being taken prisoner, executed by order of his brother-in-law Theodoric. The Suevi, as a nation, now seemed to be at an end, but a portion of the people fled to the mountains of Galicia, where they elected another sovereign, and resumed their plundering expeditions. On the succession to the Suevic throne being disputed, advantage was taken of the disorder which pervaded the kingdom by the Visigoths, who broke in upon it, and subverted it (585,)—henceforth it was blended with the Visigothic empire.

§ 11.

EMPIRE OF THE VISIGOTHS, 419—712.

(1. *Kingdom of Tolosa, Toulouse.*)

Towards the year 270, the Goths settled on the Danube and on the coasts of the Pontian (*Euxine*) Sea, and became neighbours of the Empire. This proximity rendered them more civilized than any of the other German tribes, and also tended to make their progress in the social sciences more rapid. They were the first to embrace Christianity (*Arianism*), and a translation of the four Gospels by Ulphilas, a Gothic bishop, in the middle of the fourth century, forms the most ancient specimen of the German language extant. In military glory they were not at all inferior to other Germans; for, before the close of the fourth century, they had intimidated the emperors of the Eastern Empire, into the

cession of Dacia, and the Præfecture of Illyricum, and at the commencement of the fifth century had thrice besieged the capital of the Western Empire, which was rescued from their grasp only by the payment of immense ransoms. In thus invading Italy, Alaric opened to his countrymen the provinces of Gaul, into which, in 410, he penetrated by crossing the Alps into Gallia Narbonensis, *Aquitania*. Narbona, Tolosa, Burdigala *Bordeaux*, and other towns were taken possession of. In 418, on the return of Wallia from Spain, the Gothic dominion extended from Tolosa the capital, to the ocean, and was the first kingdom founded by the barbarians within the Roman empire. On the invasion of Gaul by the Huns under Attila, the Visigoths assisted the Franks in repelling them, and the victory of the Catalaunian plains and the defeat of the Huns, were mainly due to the valour of the Goths, who lost their king in the battle.

With the consent of Avitus proclaimed Emperor of Rome by the Visigoths, to whose king, Theodoric II., he had been despatched as delegate, the barbarian tribes of the Suevi, Alani, etc., in Spain, were to be again attacked, and if possible subdued, whilst the conquered territory was to be secured to Theodoric, who crossed the Pyrenees, and subdued nearly the whole of the Suevic kingdom, the monarch of which was executed. Under his brother and successor, Euric, the Visigothic Empire of Tolosa obtained its utmost limits. He repulsed the Bretons, whom the Emperor Anthemius had summoned to his assistance. In 475, he subdued the province of Auvergne, and extended his frontiers to the Loire and the Rhone. In Spain, he subjected the whole of Tarraconensis, and finally subdued the whole of Provence. In 480, he died at Arles, leaving a son of tender years to succeed him, hence the extent of the kingdom was of short duration. An able warrior had become the chief of the Franks (Chlodvig III.,) who soon, under the pretence of defending the Catholics, attacked the Arian Visigoths. The armies of the Franks and the Visigoths met at the Plains of Vougle. After an obstinate engagement, the Goths gave way. Alaric, the youthful monarch, fell in the battle (507.) Aquitania and Septimania Gothia, *Guienne and Gascogne*, were lost to the Franks. The Visigoths assembled at Narbona, and elected Gesalic

to the vacant throne, Amalaric being but five years of age. The Burgundians now joined the Franks; whilst Theodoric, the King of the Ostrogoths, despatched his general Ibbas from Italy to assist his countrymen, the Visigoths. Their combined forces defeated the Burgundians and the Franks, and compelled them to withdraw from before Arles, which they were besieging, and also forced Clovis, the King of the Franks, to raise the siege of Carcassonne. Theodoric, however, stopped short, and instead of pursuing his success, turned his forces against Gesalic, and caused Amalaric, his grandson, to be crowned in his stead. Gesalic, who received assistance from the Vandals and the Franks, endeavoured to regain his throne, but was made a prisoner and put to death by order of Ibbas (511.) The war was still continued between the Goths (now united) and the Franks, but without giving rise to any memorable actions. Clovis preserved Tolosa, Burdegalis, *Bourdeaux*, and Aquitania. The Visigoths occupied Narbonnensis and Spain; the Ostrogoths, Provence as far as the Rhone; and Theodoric, as guardian of his grandson Amalaric, reigned equally over the two nations until his death, when the kingdom was divided between his grandsons. Amalaric, who reigned over the Visigoths, married the sister of the King of the Franks, but his subsequent ill-treatment of the princess led to a war; Amalaric fled from Narbona to Barcelona, where he was slain by a soldier in an insurrection which his cowardice had prompted, and thus the royal line of the Gothic monarchs ended, 581. The capital was now transferred to Barcelona, and afterwards to Toletum.

II.—West Gothic (*elective*) Kingdom in Spain, 531—712.

At the commencement of this period, the Gothic monarchy appears to have been either elective or hereditary, according to circumstances. Theudas, the first king chosen, was assassinated, and others also, until, in 550, Athanagild being elected, obtained the assistance of Justinian, for which he ceded the south-eastern coast of the Spanish peninsula. On the death of Athanagild, the throne was occupied by Leovigild, one of the greatest of the Gothic kings. He took the towns held by the empire on the coast, and subdued the rebellious Suevi, incorporating their kingdom into

his own, as a tributary state. The Gothic kingdom now embraced nearly the whole peninsula, Toletum being the capital. The reign of Leovigild was marked by the reform which took place in the legislation and finances.

On the expulsion of the Greeks from Spain, the natural limits of the Gothic kingdom were fixed, and less efforts were put forth for its extension; a bond of union now also existed between the Goths and the Greeks, in the adoption of the Catholic faith by *Recared*, the king of the former, who persuaded the nation generally to embrace it (584.) The reign of *Recared* was more glorious than peaceful. He subdued the King of Austrasia, but a lasting peace was insured by his intermarriage with the sister of the king. He died esteemed and regretted, 601.

After the death of *Recared*, the kingdom was torn by internal factions, and for upwards of twenty years confusion and disorder prevailed. Amongst the usurpers, who reigned during this period, one only deserves mention, *Sigebert*, who added Mauritania (*North African Coast*,) to the Gothic empire. In 622, the race of Leovigild was recalled to the throne in the person of *Suintila*, who finally drove out the Greeks from the few cities they had hitherto occupied on the coast. He was deposed, 631, and for forty years Spain was distracted by the contests of a rapid succession of kings, representatives of factions and cabals. In 672, *Wamba*, a noble Goth, was compelled to forsake his retirement and accept the crown. He reigned usefully and triumphed over his enemies. The rebels in Austrasia were subdued, and a splendid naval victory was obtained over the Arabians, who had now begun to infest the coasts of Spain and Africa. After a reign of nine years, he retired to a monastery, and appointed *Ervinga* as his successor, who also after a peaceable reign of eight years retired to a monastery. *Egiza*, a nephew of *Wamba*, was now seated upon the throne, and after defeating the Arabs, pursued his legislative labours. He blended the Roman and the Gothic laws, which he caused to be obeyed throughout the peninsula, the Gothic, and original inhabitants of which were thenceforward called *Spaniards*, (700). Under *Witiza*, who commenced his reign well, but subsequently became a tyrant, the nation rebelled and elected *Roderic* in his room, who proved unequal to restore the strength of the weakened kingdom,

and indulged in every species of licentiousness; having outraged one of the noble females who attended upon his queen, the daughter of Count Julian, the governor of the Spanish province of Mauritania, that nobleman opened his fortresses to the Arabs, who had settled upon the African coasts, and obtained their help in revenging the indignities offered to his house. Murza, the Arab commander, despatched his lieutenant Taric, who, with Count Julian, crossed the straits and landed at Gibraltar. Roderic met the Arabs at Xeres de la Frontera, where after a struggle of three days (nine days?) the engagement terminated rather in favour of the invaders. Towards the end of the engagement, Roderic disappeared (711). Muza now joined his lieutenant, and proceeded in the conquest of Spain without opposition, excepting at Guadalete, where Theodomir, a noble Goth, held out, but at length surrendered on favourable conditions. The dissensions between Muza and Taric, arising out of the jealousy of the former, led the caliph to recal both. Spain was now divided into (1)—Arabian Spain, at first under the governors of the caliphs of Damasek, *Damascus*, until Abderrahaman, the last of the Omniades, fleeing from the massacre at Persia, arrived in Spain, where he erected the independent Khalifate of Cordova (756). (2) The Christian kingdom of Asturias, whither a remnant of the Visigoths had retreated, and where they still defended themselves against the Arabs, thus laying the foundation of the future triumphs of the Christian over the Mohammedan population of Spain.

§ 12.

THE KINGDOM OF THE BURGUNDIONES (BURGUNDIANS) IN GAUL, (407—533?)

In the first century of the Christian era, the Burgundiones appear near the Weichsel; they belonged either to the Suevic or Vandalic race. The loss of a battle against the Gepidæ about the year 250, induced them to advance towards the west. They first came into contact with the Romans during the reign of Probus, and afterwards invaded the Gallic provinces with various success; but in the reign of Honorius that emperor ceded to them lands in the Roman Germania Superior, *Alsace*, near the banks of the Rhine. Subsequently on the dissolution of the Western Empire,

they extended themselves in the east as far as the Aar to the Alps, in the south to the Durance, and in the west over the valleys of the Rhone and Saone. These countries formed "The Kingdom of the Burgundians." At first, the head of the nation was a high priest, who was elected to the office for life. Their kings, for each band had its commander or king, resided at Geneva, and at Lyons, Besancon, and Vienne; they were elected, but liable to rejection in case of failure in war, or for personal deformity, and in the time of famine, when, as agriculture and pasturage formed the principal occupation of the free Burgundians, a commander was considered to be unnecessary. In 515, Sigismund the son of Gondebod, ascended the throne, but having by his conduct incurred the resentment of Theodoric the Ostrogothic king, the latter stirred up Clotilda, whose father and mother had been put to death by Gondebod, the father of Sigismund, to make war against him and thus to be revenged. The Frankish princes, her sons, at once entered Burgundy, and having vanquished Sigismund, compelled him to take refuge in the convent of St. Maurice Valais, which he had founded, and where he hoped to be secure. He was, however, discovered, and was, with his wife and family, thrown into a well at Caulmiers near Orleans, 524. A second campaign of the Franks against the Burgundians was not so successful; Clodomir, the eldest of the Frankish kings, lost his life, and the territory was evacuated. Gondemar, the brother of Sigismund, carried on the struggle during a period of ten years, and was at last made prisoner, when the provinces of Burgundy were ruled over by the descendants of Clovis. The Burgundians were now reduced and obliged to serve in the armies of the Franks, and all the provinces were to pay tribute. The national independence, the laws, and manners of the people, were however retained, (533, 534.)

§ 13.

THE KINGDOM OF THE FRANKS UNDER THE MEROVINGIANS.

The Franks were cantoned between the Saxons and the Gauls, and were a confederacy of tribes, each maintaining its independency, and having a separate king, probably however, of the same family, and of which the primitive

ancestor was *Meroveus*, *Meerevig*, warrior of the sea. The name of Franks, however, does not appear in history until the year 241; it signifies a confederation, and was originally formed for the deliverance of Germany from the bondage of Rome. Since the middle of the first century, the Franks had often harassed the Romans, by crossing the Rhine, and ravaging the province of Gaul; at length they were allowed, on condition of being the perpetual allies of Rome, to establish themselves in *Toxandria*, *Zeeland* and *North Flanders*. In this relation they proved valuable auxiliaries to the empire, the frontiers of which they bravely, but vainly defended against the grand invasion of 406. Before the beginning of the fifth century, they had received large allotments of land as Roman soldiers, and had also seized considerable tracts of territory in the neighbouring provinces belonging to the barbarians. Hence they established themselves firmly along the left bank of the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt. They were divided into two grand branches, the *Salian* and the *Ripuarian* Franks; the former being sometimes termed the Franks of Tournay, the latter the Franks of Cologne. Under *Chlodvig* (*Clovis*), the grandson of *Meroveus*, who succeeded his father *Childeric* 481, and *Ragnacer*, King of the Franks of *Cambray*, an end was put to the supremacy of Rome, by the defeat and death of their governor *Siagrius*, at *Soissons*, 486; afterwards the territory on the *Seine*, and the whole of *Armorica*, fell to the Franks. *Chlodvig* was now united to the niece of *Gondebod*, the powerful King of the *Burgundians*, who had banished her. To be revenged, she sought to convert *Chlodvig* to the Catholic faith, and thus make him an implacable enemy to the *Burgundians* and *Alemanni*, who had embraced the Arian creed. In 496 the territories of the Franks were invaded by the Arian *Alemanni*, when the whole of the Frankish tribes assembled to repel it under their respective kings; the two armies met at *Tolbiacum* (*Zulich?*), and the Franks were on the eve of being defeated, when *Chlodvig* vowed to renounce the worship of the German deities (yet venerated by the whole of the Frankish tribes) and to embrace the Catholic faith, if he won the victory. During the interval, the King of the *Alemanni* was slain and his warriors put to flight. Those who had entered Gaul acknowledged *Chlodvig* as

their king, and thus placed him at the head of a great army. On the return of the king to Rheims, on Christmas day, 496, he, with three thousand warriors, was baptized into the orthodox Catholic faith, which considerably augmented his power, and added to the ranks of his army; the Armoricans after being defeated, joined his ranks, which were also swelled by the addition of the Roman soldiers scattered throughout Gaul. Chlodvig, having reduced the Roman provinces in Gaul, next directed his arms against the Burgundians and the Visigoths, who had established themselves within the territory. In one battle, he rendered the Burgundian princes tributary to him; in another, on the plains of Vouglé, broke the power of the Visigoths, wresting several provinces from them, and would have driven them across the Pyrenees, had not Theodoric the Ostrogoth hastened to their assistance. Chlodvig, whose zeal for the Catholic faith would not permit the Arian Goths to possess the best part of Gaul, prepared an expedition to attack them. The Franks passed the Loire, and traversed Touraine, then a part of the Visigothic kingdom, until at last the armies met on the Plains of Vouglé; the combat was obstinate, and Alaric, the Visigothic king, fell in the battle, and according to some, by the hand of Chlodvig himself; the Visigoths dispersed in all directions. Their principal cities Rhodéz, Albé, Bordeaux, Toulouse, and Angoulesme, in *Southern* Gaul, submitted to the conqueror; the remnant of the defeated Goths took refuge in Carcasoune, where they were besieged. On his return from the Visigothic war Clovis established himself in Paris, which he made the capital of his kingdom; and by causing all the other long-haired Frankish kings to be massacred, the foundation of the French monarchy was established. The great features in the reign of Chlodvig were the infusion of the elements of Roman law into the German code, the constitution of which was not abolished, and his extending it over all his newly-acquired dominion, and the foundation of a territorial dukedom, which subsequently became enlarged and formed the German empire. On the death of Chlodvig 511, the Frankish kingdom was divided among his four sons, (according to Agathias,) by towns and by people, so that each had nearly an equal share—Paris, Orleans, Soissons, and Metz being the capital cities. The

eldest, Dietrich (Thierry), of Metz, received the so-called kingdom of Austrasia (Eastern France), embracing the earlier possessions of the Franks in the Netherlands and Germany, with the newly-conquered territory of Alemannia. Neustria, or New Francia (Western France), formed another sovereignty. The sons, following in the steps of their ancestor, with the aid of the Saxons subdued in 528 the Thuringian kingdom, which was united to the monarchy of the Franks, and its dukes for two centuries marched under the standard of the Merovingians, and between 523—533 the great kingdom of the Burgundians was subjugated; its independence, however, was soon after recovered by the very monarch by whom it was betrayed.

In 534, when Justinian by his general Belisarius, proposed to draw the Goths out of Italy, the assistance of the Franks was invoked by both parties—Theodatus agreed as the price of their alliance to yield that part of Gaul which lay between the Alps, the Durance, the Rhone, and the sea (Provence), besides the Alemannic territory, and part of Venetia, with two thousand pounds' weight of gold, whilst the Emperor Justinian despatched a splendid embassy with valuable presents, which were accepted. To secure the proffered territory as well, and at the same time to prevent a quarrel with the emperor, Theodobert, who had succeeded Dietrich, sent ten thousand Burgundians to the assistance of Vitiges, the Gothic king, but pretended that they acted as auxiliaries in the Italian army without his authority, and afterwards attacked both. Soon after, the *Boioares* (Bavarians) became partially tributary to the Austrasian Franks; they were, however, allowed to be governed by their own dukes who were elective. The accession of this duchy extended the Frankish dominions east nearly to Vienna, but on the advance of the Avars it was restricted to the Ems.

For forty-eight years the Frankish monarchy had been divided. But Clotaire I., who, together with his brother Childebert, succeeded to the throne of Austrasia (555), was ambitious to secure for himself undivided dominion. He accordingly suggested to the Austrasian states that, as his brother in the course of nature could not survive for any lengthened period, and had no heirs, his dominions would soon fall to his share, it would therefore be to their interest

to acknowledge him sole king at once. This was agreed to. Childebart, however, urged the son of Clotaire to rebel against his father, and assisted him in it, but was shortly taken ill and died (558), whereupon Clotaire re-united the whole dominion of Chlodvig (Clovis). At his death (562), the kingdom was again divided among his four sons.

After this, the conquests of the Franks abroad cease, and civil wars commence under the grandson of Chlodvig, during which the Franconian kingdom becomes separated into two great masses divided by the Scheldt.

During the period of the civil wars, the Frankish empire consisted of four Germanic provinces and four Frankish—viz., Germanic France, Germany, Bavaria, and Thuringia, Austrasia, Neustria, Burgundia, and Aquitania. The first four were allies rather than subjects, being governed by their own hereditary dukes, and almost independent. Their savage manners, their religion, and their laws, rendered them total strangers to the rest of the empire, so that their very existence was almost forgotten; while Burgundia and Aquitania, kingdoms subdued by the Franks, were considered as foreign, and hence scarcely any establishments had been formed within them. Properly speaking, France therefore only extended from the Rhine to the Loire, excluding Brittany, which was tributary, not subject. That part of France which was inhabited by the conquerors had been divided into Austrasia and Neustria, or the eastern and western country. The two provinces were separated by a line, which extended north and south from the mouth of the Scheldt to Bar-sur-Aube. Austrasia was on the right, eastward of this line; Neustria on the left, or to the westward. Three of the capitals—Paris, Soissons, and Orleans—were in Neustria; the fourth (Rheims), in Austrasia. The four Germanic provinces were a dependency of Austrasia, and devolved to Siegbert, who changed the capital from Rheims to Metz; Burgundia fell to Gontran, who removed the capital from Orleans to Châlons-sur-Saône; Neustria fell to Chilperic, whose court was at Soissons; and Aquitania to Charibert, whose capital was Paris. This latter kingdom, on the death of Charibert, was divided among his three brothers (567). This latter division, by confusing the boundaries of the provinces, led to frequent broils, which were still further fomented by the mutual jealousy and hatred of the queens of Austrasia and

Soissons, and led to those civil wars which uninterruptedly prevailed until the reunion of the kingdom, for the second time, under Clotaire II. of Soissons, great-grandson of Chlodwig (613).

On the death of Childebert II. (596), who, with his wife Faileuba, perished by poison (probably administered by his mother, Brunehilde or Brunehault), the latter assumed the authority, and induced her younger grandson, Dietrich (Thierry), to undertake an unjust war against his brother Dietbert (Theudebert), who had excited the jealousy of Brunehilde. The armies met at Kiersy-sur-Oise, but separated after a temporary peace was concluded. Subsequently the war was renewed, and Theudebert was defeated, first at the great battle of Tolbiac, and then at Cologne. Theudebert, being taken prisoner, was put to death by Brunehilde, and his family massacred (618). Shortly after, Thierry himself fell a victim to the wicked passions of his grandmother, who intended to govern the kingdom herself as regent for her great-grandsons, the eldest of which was only eleven years of age. The Franks, however, were disgusted with the government of Brunehilde, and offered the government to the King of Neustria, Clotaire II., whom the queen was determined to resist. Through the treachery of Warnachaire, the mayor of the palace, whose life she had sought, she, with her grandsons, fell into the hands of Clotaire, who reproached her with the numerous murders she had committed, including the massacre of no less than ten kings; and, after subjecting her to different torments, ordered her to be bound hand and foot to the tail of a wild horse, and so kicked to death.

After the death of Brunehilde (613), Clotaire II. united the whole of the Frankish nation under his sceptre. The German Austrasians, however, were opposed to the union, and, after a struggle of upwards of a century, succeeded in having it again erected into an independent sovereignty; Siegbert III., the son of Dagobert, being placed upon the throne, when his father restored to the Austrasian Crown all that it had possessed in Aquitania and Provence, with the exception of the duchy of Deutelin.

It was at this period that the Frankish empire was governed by Majores domus, the only ministers existing in the then rude state of society; they were the stewards of the royal household, and accompanied the monarch and his court from castle to castle, presiding also as magistrates, or royal judges, at the trial of delinquents. They were sometimes appointed by the king, and at others by the people. During the minority of the kings they ruled as regents, and frequently exercised the royal functions after the prince had attained to his majority. In process of time, owing to the imbecility of the princes and the

civil wars between the reigning sovereigns, they became more formidable than the monarch himself. As his chief vassal (major domus regiæ) he led the serfs (*leudes?*) to battle, and dispensed the royal patronage in Austrasia and Burgundy, etc., and, after the victory of Testry, sat as grand judge (*Mord-dome*) in the place of the king. The family of Pepin succeeded in rendering the office hereditary in their race, and long ruled with all the honours of royalty without assuming the name. For the possession of this dignity there was a continual struggle between the Franconian nobility, and at last between the mayors of the different kingdoms. Those of Austrasia and Neustria maintained a sanguinary conflict for the government of the entire monarchy, which was terminated by the defeat of the Major domus of Austrasia by Pepin of Héristal, near Liege castle, at the battle of Testry, on the Somme, near St. Quentin and Peronne (687), when Pepin became sole Major domus of the whole Franconian empire. This victory once more united the German and Roman territories; the former of which, however, having Pepin for its duke, maintained the superiority. The Merovingian monarch, Thierry III., ruled in the usual way, as a mere phantom. He presided over the assembly, or Comitia of the people, when summoned by Pepin, and, as soon as he had received the presents of the great Frankish lords, and issued decrees for the marching of the army on a certain day, was dismissed by the mayor to his country house at Maumague, on the banks of the Oise, while Pepin retired to his palace at Cologne.

The almost independent government founded by Pepin in Austrasia, on his death in 714, was not given to his son Charles, yet confined in prison under the care of his mother, but left to Theodoald, his grandson, scarcely six years of age, who was also left mayor of the palace to Dagobert III., himself a minor; Plectruda, the wife of Pepin, being guardian and governor of both. This led to a series of wars between the Austrasians and the Neustrians. The latter, feeling insulted in having an infant mayor placed over them, elected another (Raginfred); whilst the Austrasians took Charles out of prison by force, and placed him at the head of the Austrasian army. The battle of Vincy, 717, one of the most sanguinary on record, and another near Orleans, in both of which Charles was victorious, decided the dispute. Raginfred submitted to the conqueror, and Charles thus obtained undisputed sway

over the whole Frankish empire, 719. The Frisians and the Saxons, who had at the same time harassed his northern dominions, were checked in their progress, but by no means subdued; for the Thuringians and the Hessians were compelled to pay tribute to the Saxons, as the condition of peace. From 718 to the year 739, Charles, whose victories had procured for him the surname of Martel, or the Hammerer, was engaged against the Germans, the Bavarians, the Frisians, and the Saxons. The first three were compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of the Franks; whilst the Saxons, whose territories he had at six different times penetrated, remained unsubdued. Charles was compelled to leave the Saxons in some degree to themselves, in order to resist more formidable enemies in the Saracens, who, under their leader Abderrahman, composed of an army of 400,000 men, had forced their way through the Basque provinces into Aquitania, which they overran, destroying the fortresses, and slaying all the inhabitants of the cities. Bordeaux fell, and Poitiers and Tours were threatened with destruction. At this crisis the Duke of Aquitania applied for assistance to Charles, who, notwithstanding their differences, readily agreed to resist the progress of the common enemy. The Arabs had scarcely passed the great city of Poitiers when they came within sight of Charles and his Austrasian Franks. After manœuvring in presence of each other for seven days, they at length joined the battle which was fought in the plains of Vougle, near the city of Poitiers. Victory declared in favour of Charles; 75,000 (?) Saracens were left dead on the field; the ardour of the Arabians for conquests in France was stayed, and confidence restored to the Franks and Aquitanians, while the power of the Carolingian house became firmly established. In 734, the complete subjugation of the Frisians followed, and Christianity was introduced amongst them. In 741, Charles Martel died, and, as regent, divided the monarchy between his sons, Carloman and Pepin. The former had Austrasia, with Suabia and Thuingia; the latter, Neustria, Burgundia, and Provence; a few provinces, or lordships, detached from both, were the heritage of Grifon, a bastard son.

This arrangement again altered the boundaries of the empire. Grifon, on account of his turbulent disposition, was imprisoned at Neufchatel, and the provinces left him by Charles seized by Carloman and Pepin; the latter of whom, seeing that the

Neustrians and Burgundians were preparing to shake off the yoke, and elect a Frankish monarch, took one of the last of the Merovingians (Chilperic III.) out of a convent, and placed him over them. He was not, however, acknowledged in Austrasia. From 743 to 745, Carloman and Pepin were engaged in a sanguinary warfare against the Germans, who endeavoured to shake off the yoke of the Franks. The Bavarians, the Alemanni, the Saxons, and the Sclavonians were all beaten. In 746, Carloman ordered a meeting of the plaid of the kingdom at the Castle of Gunstadt; soon after which (752) he retired to a monastery, and Pepin became sole ruler. Pepin, who had long sought the regal dignity, threw off the mask, and, having obtained the sanction and support of Pope Zachary, was, with his queen, Bertruda, raised to the kingdom on the 1st of March, in the national assembly held at Soissons, and was afterwards anointed by Boniface, 752. Chilperic, the dethroned monarch, was shut up in the convent of Sithieu, where he died, 755.

§ 14.

RELIGION AND CONSTITUTION OF THE GERMAN NATIONS.

I. Religion.

a) The Introduction of Christianity amongst the Germans was one of the most important events which followed the migrations which took place during the third and three following centuries. Already, in 325, we find a Gothic bishop (Theophilus) present at the council of Nice, and his successor, Ulphilas, translated the Bible into the Gothic tongue. This prelate embraced the Arian doctrine, which was also professed by the West and East Goths, the Burgundians, the Vandals, and the Langobards (Lombards), formerly the worshippers of Odin. Among the East Goths and Vandals it disappeared after the dissolution of their empires, and Catholicism took its place. After the victory obtained by Clovis, at Tolbiac, over the Alemanni, the Franks embraced the Catholic faith; but their kings made no attempts to convert their German subjects, to whom the gospel was first preached by Columban, an Irish missionary; whose disciples, Gallus, St. Kilian, and St. Emmeran, were despatched to the Alemanni, the Thuringians, and the Bavarians. It was not, however, until the commencement of the eighth century that the conversion of the Germans took place to any extent, when the "Apostle of the Germans," S t.

Winifried, afterwards called Bonifacius, preached to the tribes located between the Rhine and the Elbe, as the Frisii and the Catti, or Hessians, whom he persuaded to destroy the holy oak at Geismar in Hesse. He built churches, schools, and monasteries; and in 739, less than twenty years from the commencement of his mission, 120,000 had been reclaimed from idolatry. He founded the cathedrals of Erfurt, Bonaberg, Eichstadt, and Wurtzberg, and in the whole eight new bishoprics, which he subjected at first to the control of the German National Council (*Concilium Germanicum*), being fully sensible of the advantages of the protection of the Frankish monarch. He filled the office of bishop and archbishop at first without any settled diocese or jurisdiction; but in 745 he was elected to the archbishopric of Mayence and Papal Legate. In 755, this aged Apostle of the Germans caused his friend St. Lullus to be recognised as Archbishop of Mentz, and undertook his fourth mission to the Friezes, among whom, with twenty-two of his companions, he suffered martyrdom.—The conversion of the Anglo-Saxons of Britain was accelerated through the instrumentality of Bertha, the queen of Ethelbert, sister of Charibert, king of Paris, who prepared the mind of the Kentish sovereign for the reception of Christianity. On the arrival of St. Austin, despatched to Britain by Gregory the Great, the worship of Thor and Woden was abandoned, and as many as 16,000 converts were baptized in a single day.

b) The monastic life appears to have originated with those men, who, persecuted by the enemies of Christianity, were compelled to live in seclusion and privacy. Several of these (*Monachi*) dispersed themselves in the Egyptian desert, and at length assembled round the hut or cottage of St. Antonius (305), near to which they built huts for themselves. Under Pachomius, the disciple of Antonius, they resided in one common building (*cænobium*), governed by a prefect (*Abbas, Abbot*). From Egypt they extended themselves over the countries of the West, where, under St. Benedict, a new form was given to monastic establishments. Manual labour and agriculture were associated with the study of the sciences and the education of youth; and the "order" or "rule" first made for the regulation of the monks of Monte Casino, near Naples, subsequently introduced into nearly all the monastic establishments of Western Europe; agreeably to this rule, the noviciate promised to remain in the convent for life,

and took the triple vow of poverty, chastity, and unconditional obedience.

II. Constitution.

a) *Origin and development of the German States.*—On the conquest of the Roman provinces, the German tribes conducted themselves very differently towards the vanquished. Several, as the Vandals and the Langobardi, who were filled with the most bitter hatred against the Romans, seized the whole of the landed property, and abolished the Roman laws and institutions. Others, as the Ostro and Visigoths and the Burgundians, acted with greater liberality, and allowed their enemies to retain in some instances one-third, and in others two-thirds, of their possessions. The Franks pursued a middle course between the two. It happened, however, that the victors were not in all cases the most benefited; oftentimes the vanquished were not reduced to slavery, but allowed to retain their freedom; and, amongst the Franks, they were even elevated to posts of honour, and held high offices in Church and State. The inferiority of the vanquished chiefly consisted in three things—the forced resignation of a portion of their estates, the greater power of the monarch over them than over his armed vassals and followers, and the lower penalty set upon the taking of their lives; for the life of a civilized Roman was by the barbarian only estimated at one-half the value of his own. These differences served also to prevent the amalgamation or mingling of the German and Roman races, which proceeded but slowly. In the Pyrenean peninsula it was retarded through the high estimation in which the Roman character was held by the Visigoths; and in the Hesperian (Italy), the contempt with which the barbarian Germans looked upon the Romans and their institutions, produced the same result.

With respect to the distinctions, or the various gradations of society, which existed amongst the Germans, there were, 1. Noblemen, anciently those who were born of parents long possessed of freedom, and were invested with *official dignity*. The gradations of rank seem never to have been many; among the Bavarians, for instance, there existed only six orders of nobility, to which, according to German law, a high penalty attached in cases of violence or loss of life. There was a nobility by service, where the vassal held his land immediately from the sovereign, to whom he was bound by a special oath of fealty. Deeds of heroism and bravery, or any meritorious action performed under the eye of the sovereign, sometimes led to distinction; but more frequently the possession of a large amount of landed property, wrested

out of the hands of the enemy. These in time became hereditary, and thus formed a new order of nobility. There were also, 2. The *Free Germans* (warriors), the French *Milites*. 3. The *Half Free Germans*, or *half leudes*, men who did not carry arms, but were engaged in agriculture. 4. *Free Romans*. 5. Tributary Romans (captives taken in war). Quite independent of these distinctions in the state, was that order of nobility which consisted of the attendants upon the sovereign (*comitatus*), as the great civil and military officers, who formed, as it were, his bodyguard, and were themselves accompanied by a numerous train of leudes, and belonged to the royal household.

Change of Constitution, more particularly in the kingdom of the Franks. The foundation of the Franconian empire was laid in conquest. From Franconia to Aquitania, the German tribes and Romans owned the supremacy of the Frankish sovereigns. Before their entrance into Gaul, they had their *hereditary princes*, *one sovereign family*, from which alone their future kings were chosen. The *revenues* for their support were derived from the land. Their own domains were extensive. Annual presents from the dignitaries of the church, and certain taxes which were imposed upon all, as well as judicial fines, all passed into the royal treasury. Oftentimes the revenues of the king were increased by the venal sale of dignities, and the appropriation of the revenues of the monasteries, and even of the cathedrals, to the royal purse. To the king belonged the partitioning of the land conquered by his followers from its original possessors, and also the nomination of the dukes and counts, and other high officers of state. This served considerably to consolidate and to strengthen the royal power, which, while the annual plaids, consisting of the armed freemen, continued to assemble, received a check. At length, when the territory became more extended, and the vassals dispersed to a greater distance from the centre of the empire, these plaids were but thinly attended. The government, therefore, devolved upon the king, his official attendants, and the counts and dukes, to whom also an almost uncontrolled authority in their respective territories was delegated. To the king alone, however, belonged the power of declaring war and the settlement of peace, and to him only were the presents of the vanquished presented, or the contributions of allied princes paid. It was likewise the province of the king to amend, and to prepare new laws for the consideration of the assemblies, which, when sanctioned, were to be carried out by the territorial dukes and counts. In later times, on the decline of the royal power, the counts, but more particularly the dukes, whose dignities were originally official, and lasted only during the will of the sovereign, became hereditary. They now no longer attended the plaids and assemblies as the official servants of the king, but as the representatives of districts and provinces; feudal princes, not in behalf of the sovereign, but to serve their own personal interests. In the remoter districts of the kingdom, the counts or dukes governed almost as independent princes, and were acknowledged as such by the local nobility and inhabitants. In process of time they invested themselves with certain privileges and immunities at the expense of the crown, and thus formed a numerous temporal and ecclesiastical aristocracy, which not only gradually oppressed the lower freemen, but also became opposed to the sovereign himself.

b) *The Feudal System*.—The territory won from the original inhabitants by the king and his followers (*Gasindi*) was divided by him among those who assisted in the acquisition; each obtained an allotment (*allodium*), which, on the death of the tenant, could be held on the usual condition of military service by some other member of the family. Thence it was in a manner hereditary; nevertheless, although the king himself had no power to deprive any tenant of his domain, it might be done at the annual meeting of the plaid, on the vote of the assembly. Subsequently, as the power of the free men or warriors increased, the lands became hereditary, and were equally divided at death among the offspring of the possessor. In the division of the land, the king himself retained a larger portion than the most favoured of his vassals was allowed to possess. For, as the sovereign and his court lived upon the proceeds of the royal domains, travelling from palace to palace to consume successively the provisions which had accumulated at each of them, such ample domains were necessary for the support of the royal dignity, and to enable the king to confer upon his favourites and his valiant followers (*vassen* or *vassals*) small domains, for which they were required to render military service. These allotments were termed feods or benefices (*feudum* or *beneficium*), and at first were granted only for life; they afterwards became hereditary, but whether by grant from the monarch, or by usurpation, does not appear. The military service of the beneficed vassals was termed lehe-man, *leudes*; that of the freemen, bound by duty for its defence, heer-men, *arimanni*. In course of time, the allodial proprietors, who were bound only for the national defence, became, by their acceptance of the grants of lands from the king or the nobles, *feods*, and were bound to do military service in private as well as in public war. Hence a sort of personal militia was created, devoted to the maintenance of private interests, and governed by a contract, rather than by the law of the kingdom. The first vassal of the king was the *Major domus* (*regiæ*), who, as the first representative or lieutenant of the sovereign, led the serfs (*comitatis*) in time of war, distributed the royal patronage, and sometimes (as in Austrasia) sat on the seat of justice as the representative of the king.

In the time of Charlemagne many of the petty allodial proprietors became vassals, finding it to be more safe to place themselves under

some great baron, who was bound to protect his vassals, than to be plundered by their superiors. The small allodial proprietor, therefore, made over his estate to some great lord, from whom he received it back as a fief (*feudum oblatum*). In subsequent times, these smaller proprietors almost wholly disappear; they became sub-vassals to some duke, count, or baron, whose armed forces were consequently augmented, and in many instances more than a match for those of the sovereign,—a policy which constituted the chief strength of the feudal system, which for so long a period existed in the German empire, and amongst the Franks, the Anglo-Saxons, and the Lombards.

c) *Legislation*.—Until the middle of the fifth century, the Germans were governed only by an unwritten law. In the three centuries which followed, written laws (*leges*) were from time to time published, first, for the tribes which had passed the Rhine, or the united people composing the Frankish confederacy, as the Salii, Ripuarii, Alemanni, Bavarians, Burgundians, &c., and subsequently for the Westgoths, Lombards, and Anglo-Saxons. These codes were all, with one exception, that of the Anglo-Saxon, composed in the Latin language, and were probably the acts of the assembly in councils, or the results of treaties entered into between the king and his subjects. One object of these laws, which at first were but an embodiment of former customs, was to expunge those heathen elements which were incorporated with them, and so introduce the purer principles of Christianity. Hence, *Lex Salica*, which was published before the conversion of the Franks to Christianity, in the reign of Clovis, underwent several successive changes, and received from time to time large additions to meet the circumstances under which they were placed.

These laws (*leges*), especially the *Lex Salica* of the Franks, are principally characterised by their penalties, chiefly against *theft*. Excepting under certain circumstances, the freeman could not be punished with death or corporal chastisement; only the unfree, the serf. To the freeman every injury was redeemable by a fine (*compositio*), and he who could not pay the composition became the slave of the injured party. Even the crime of murder could be expiated by the payment of the fixed number of solidis (*shillings*), which varied according to the rank of the victim, and the circumstances of the case. With respect to judicial proofs and purgations, the kinds of proof were in general four:—1. That of written documents. 2. The oaths of witnesses. 3. The oath of the plaintiff, who was privileged to bring his nearest relatives or friends (*conjuratores* or *consacramentales*) to swear for him—viz., to make oath that, from their knowledge of him, he had sworn according to the best of his belief. The number of *conjuratores* varied from two to eight hundred. The general number was twelve. *Compurgation*.—The most ancient method was by *cold water*, in which the

guilty sank and the innocent swam. *Boiling water*: A cauldron of which the accused thrust his arm into, when it was immediately banded, and if, after a certain short time, on its removal the arm appeared in a healthy condition, the accused was held to be innocent. The *ordeal by red-hot iron* consisted either in holding the hot iron rod with the naked hand, or walking, with naked feet, over a number of burning ploughshares. There was also the purgation by *the cross*, which took place before the cross in the church, and consisted in holding the hands crossed over the head for a certain time. If the arms dropped before the expiration of that period, the accused was pronounced guilty, and punished accordingly.

B. The East.

§ 15.

THE EASTERN ROMAN OR BYZANTINE EMPIRE UNDER THE MACEDONIAN DYNASTY, 395-867.

I. The Rise of the Empire from 395 to the death of Justinian, 565.

On the division of the Roman empire by Theodosius, between his two sons, Arcadius and Honorius, the former received the eastern half, termed the *Eastern Roman or Byzantine empire*, which extended west and east from the shores of the Adriatic to the banks of the Tigris. North and south it embraced the countries south of the Danube and the Euxine, and those on the African coasts of the Mediterranean. Arcadius, a weak, effeminate prince, was governed by his minister, Rufinus, a Gaul, who is said to have invited the Huns to make incursions into the territories of his sovereign. He was put to death by Gainus, a Goth, when the eunuch Eutropius for a time became the reigning favourite. He was, however, a great intriguer, and was charged with being the author of the Phrygian revolt, brought to trial, banished to the Isle of Cyprus, and then beheaded. Gainus, who had been instrumental in the banishment of Eutropius, soon after lost his life in a battle against the Huns. In his later years, Arcadius was assisted in the government by the Empress Eudoxia. He died (408), and was succeeded by his son, Theodosius II., who, like Arcadius, was only nominally emperor, the reins of government being in the hands of Anthemius; who, considering Pulcheria, the sister of Theodosius, better qualified for the administration than himself, resigned his office into her hands. She ruled ably and successfully. In the latter days of Theodosius, the eunuch Chrysaph governed. Constantinople was threatened by the Huns, and was only

saved by acceding to the payment of an increased annual tribute, at last amounting to 2,100 lbs. of gold. In 412, Armenia was partly lost to the Persians. In 450, Theodosius was thrown from his horse and killed. He has the honour of being the first monarch who published a digest of the laws (*leges*) of the empire, for the benefit of his subjects. Pulcheria, who had ruled for some time during the reign of Theodosius, now succeeded to the vacant throne, and gave her hand to the senator Marcian, who had distinguished himself in the Persian and other wars. He refused to pay the annual tribute to the Huns; and on the breaking up of their empire, after the death of Attila (453), he cultivated peaceful relations with the Eastern Goths, south of the Danube, formerly tributary to the Huns. On the death of Marcian, Leo I. was raised to the throne by Aspar, the general of the eastern army, whom he afterwards ungratefully put to death, and thus fixed a stain upon his fame. Leo was the first sovereign crowned by a bishop (the patriarch of Constantinople). During his reign he expended a vast sum in an expedition against Genseric, king of the Vandals, which ended in the utter destruction of the army engaged in it. He died 474, leaving the throne to his infant grandson, whose father, Zeno (an Isaurian), governed in his stead, and probably murdered the young prince that he might possess the throne. The widow empress of Leo drove the usurper from the seat of power, and conferred the throne upon her brother Brasilicus, who, however, subsequently offended his sister, and through a conspiracy was betrayed into the hands of Zeno, who again usurped the throne, 477, which he kept possession of for fourteen years. His reign was disgraceful, and remarkable for the concessions he made to the Ostrogothic King, to whom he yielded a part of Lower Dacia and Mœsia, and, probably as the price of his forbearance from attacking Constantinople, the government of Italy was surrendered. On the death of Zeno, his virtuous widow, Ariadne, bestowed her hand and the empire upon Anastasius, who engaged violently in the disputes which then agitated the church; and, by abolishing some of the decrees of the Council of Chalcedon, brought about the beginning of the first religious war. During his long reign of twenty-seven years, the Bulgarians on the shores of the Euxine frequently attacked the provinces on the Danube; to preserve the capital from any assaults, he built the famous long wall which extended from the Euxine to the Marmora

sea. He also recognised the kingdom of the Franks. On his death (518), he was succeeded by Justin, a Thracian peasant, who obtained the throne by artifice, distributing among the troops the gold entrusted to him by Amantius with a view to his own elevation. He was chiefly occupied in the propagation of Catholicism, which he effected by persecution. In his reign, the first monastic order of the Benedictines was established, and spread itself over the countries of the West; Monte Casino, in the Neapolitan territory, being founded as early as 520. After a reign of nine years Justin died, and was succeeded by his nephew Justinian, whose talent lay in his discrimination, by the exercise of which he selected the most fit and proper persons to command his armies, and to regulate the internal affairs of the empire. Justinian (527—565) began his splendid reign by the improvements which he effected in the Roman law by the—a) *Codex Justinianus*, (12 vols.), or a regular and copious body of jurisprudence, embracing, in a digested and simple form, the judicial wisdom which had accumulated during the former reigns. This important work was executed by ten of the most distinguished lawyers of the age, under the superintendence of the great Tribonian. Soon after its production, this code was felt to be insufficient; it therefore underwent a revision, and in the course of six years it appeared in a new form. b) The *Institutiones*, a compendium of Roman law, for the use of the schools. c) The *Pandectæ*, or *Digesta*, a collection of the opinions or most important explanations and decisions contained in the writings of forty of the most eminent jurists. d) The *Novellæ*, being an addition or supplement to the former; it embraced the laws made during the latter period of Justinian's reign, and those of the later emperors. The whole work received the title of "*Corpus Juris Civilis*," and recognised the will of the emperor as absolute.

The internal tranquillity of the empire was disturbed by the insurrections or tumults which took place between the Blues and the Greens in the Hippodrome at Constantinople, which were neither of an ecclesiastical or political character. Chariot racing, a favourite amusement among the Romans, had been introduced into Constantinople, and both the empress and the wife of Belisarius were the daughters of charioteers, who wore dresses either of a blue or green uniform. In process of time, the whole population was divided into two opposite parties,

distinguished by these colours. Justinian embraced the cause of the Blues, and justice was withheld from the Greens. These riots at length assumed the character of open rebellion. In 532, one of the most terrible of these revolts, called *Nika*, or victory (from the cry adopted), took place, when all the public buildings were destroyed or seriously damaged. During the five days the capital was in the hands of the mob, and upwards of 30,000 of the Green party were massacred. Justinian was on the eve of taking flight, but was prevented by the firmness of the Empress Eudoxia. The emperor subsequently restored the stately buildings, which had been damaged or destroyed, to more than their original magnificence, especially the church of St. Sophia.

Justinian now turned his attention to the strengthening of his frontier provinces. To render the north secure against the attacks of the Bulgares, he erected between the Save and the mouth of the Danube a line of fortifications, embracing more than eighty fortresses, and after a great sacrifice of human life, in consequence of the opposition of the Persians to the Lazic alliance with the Romans, the war was put an end to by a treaty purchased with gold (506). Entrenchments were also thrown up, and treaties entered into with the various nations of Armenia, etc. It was during the Persian war against the Romans, that the eunuch Narses, afterwards a celebrated general, passed over to the Romans, and that Belisarius won his first laurels. Justinian now endeavoured to make Italy and Africa once more Roman provinces, and thus to effect the restoration of the Roman empire. The empire of the Vandals in Africa was destroyed by Belisarius (see § 9); and thus, by one of the most rapid conquests ever achieved by disproportionate numbers, was Africa placed again in the hands of the Romans. The Ostrogoths, who possessed the whole of Italy, were next attacked (see § 8), and after a war carried on by Belisarius for eighteen years, and by the eunuch Narses (who succeeded to the command) for two years, Italy was for a time added to the empire. In 550, the sea coast of Southern Spain was surrendered to Justinian, as the price of his assistance to Athanagild (see § 11).

The narrow-minded Justinian, jealous of the success of his general Belisarius, withdrew him from Africa to repel the aggressions of Chosroes (or Nurshivan), the Persian monarch, who, pressed upon by the Ostrogoths, broke the treaty which

he had concluded with Justinian (540), and invaded Syria and Antioch, the latter of which was reduced to ashes. Armenia was devastated, and Palestine was threatened, when the appearance of Belisarius in the east compelled the Persians to withdraw. The Colchian war, however, was disputed with the greatest obstinacy for sixteen years by the two emperors, and it was not without much negotiation that a treaty of peace was concluded (556). The territories of Colchis, on the south-eastern shore of the Euxine, were now free from the payment of the annual tribute to Persia, and formed the boundary of the Roman empire in that direction. After a reign of thirty-eight years, Justinian expired (565), leaving to his successor an exhausted exchequer, which had been expended in the erection of costly buildings, and in the purchasing of treaties of peace. To meet these demands, offices of state were publicly sold, monopolies granted, and burdensome taxes laid upon the people. These things, Justin II., who saw the errors of his uncle's administration, undertook to remedy.

II. Decline of the Empire, from 565 to the accession of the Macedonian Emperors, 867.

During the reign of Justin II., a mild and benevolent prince, Italy was lost to the Lombards (comp. § 8, iv). The Avars, pressed upon the Turks, founded an empire in the fruitful plains of the Danube, and finally possessed themselves of the Illyrian peninsula. Towards the close of the reign of Justin, Chosroes, the Persian monarch, ravaged Syria; and Apamea was reduced to ashes. In 574, he resigned the crown to Tiberius, the brave captain of his guards, who successfully resisted the Persian arms; but after a short reign of four years was cut off by a mortal disease. Maurice, a valiant officer, was chosen to succeed him, and during his reign, the Khan of the Avars carried terror to the walls of Constantinople, and even insulted the ambassador of the emperor. Maurice, however, was more successful against the Persians even than Tiberias, and on the rebellion of Bahram (see § 17) assembled an army under Narses (not the conqueror of Italy) and placed Chosroes II. upon the throne. In 602, Maurice attempting to reduce the pay of his soldiers, an insurrection broke out, in which he and his five sons were butchered, and their heads exposed in the Hippodrome at Constantinople. Phocas, a centurion, the leader of the insurrection, assumed the purple for eight years, during which the most opulent cities of the

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—the Jacobites, who fled into Egypt, Arabia, and Persia;—and the Maronites, of the sect of the Monothelites, who found shelter in the mountains of Lebanon. Among other practices of ancient heathenism, which had crept into the worship of the Christian churches, was that of image worship, and during this period took place the Iconoclastic (image-breaking) controversy, which was continued for upwards of a century. It originated in the decree of the Emperor Leo III. (the Isaurian), 726, which commanded the removal of all pictures and images from the churches, excepting that of our Saviour. This decree, although violently opposed by the monks and priests, who made a scandalous traffic of the protection of these household gods, and of the miracles they pretended to perform by their intercession, was notwithstanding carried into effect. The worship of images having been condemned as heretical by the seventh œcumenical (general) council, held at Constantinople (754), the persecution of the worshippers of images was carried on with vigour, and with some degree of cruelty, by Constantine Copronymus. His successor, Leo IV., in consequence of the seditions and revolts fomented by the monks, carried his persecution so far as to punish with death any worshipper of images, and would doubtless have sacrificed even the life of the empress, in whose bed two images were secreted, had not a pretended miracle been wrought, by which the life of Irene was saved, and that of the emperor sacrificed. As the popes had aided Irene with all their power, she called a second council at Nice in 787, when the idolatrous worship was confirmed and carried out by Irene with great pomp.

It is remarkable that the churches of the West invariably rejected, with horror, the worship of images, which they considered as idolatrous. Among the Germans relics were regarded, and to worship the bones of a deceased saint accorded more with their barbarism and gloomy imaginations. Both were productive of immense wealth to the church, which every year received vast sums from Gaul and Germany in exchange for the relics which had been taken out of the catacombs of Italy.

Irene had put aside her husband to reign uncontrolled as regent for her son, but on his attaining his majority he excited her jealousy, and was compelled to banish her to Athens, her birthplace. Subsequently she was recalled, when she excited the people, through the priests and bigots, to sedition. The wretched Constantine, who had interdicted the worship of images, was seized, and had his eyes torn out with such cruelty

that he soon afterwards expired. Irene, who was the first woman that had ever sat on the throne of the empire in her own right, now reigned as sole monarch. In 802, her grand treasurer (an Iconoclast) headed a conspiracy, and usurped the throne. Irene was banished to Lesbos, where she supported herself by spinning. At her death she was canonized as a saint. The emperors who followed were Iconoclasts, and as their reigns are chronicled only by the partizans of image worship, they are described as cruel and tyrannical. On the accession of Michael III., Theodora, like Irene, reigned during the minority of the prince, and she effected the restoration of the worship which had for so long a time been prohibited. Michael (surnamed the Sot) was a weak, but cruel, prince. Nevertheless, having associated with him in the government, Basil, the Macedonian, the affairs of the empire were managed with vigour. The cruelties of the emperor and his uncle, Cæsar Bardas, at length raised the indignation of Basil, who caused them to be put to death; an act which throws a stain over his otherwise noble character. The reign of Michael was the era of a schism which for ever divided the Greek and Latin churches. Irritated by the remonstrances of the patriarch Ignatius, Michael degraded him, and placed the learned Photius, captain of the guard, on the chair of Constantinople, and obtained the sanction of a council for the act. The intruder was excommunicated by the pope, and afterwards exiled. Ignatius was restored, but on his death (897) Photius again filled the patriarchial chair. On the conversion of the Bulgares to Christianity, a division took place between the patriarch and the pope respecting the supremacy of the Bulgarian church, which was eventually followed by a separation of the Greek and Roman churches (1054). The persecution of the Paulicians, a sect which sprang up about 660, took place during the reign of Michael, in which upwards of 100,000 persons were slaughtered, and their property confiscated. Carbeas, whose father had perished, formed a band of Paulicians, and solicited the assistance of the Arabians, who penetrated into the heart of Asia, and desolated the fairest provinces of Greece. In the issue, the Paulicians were compelled to retreat, and take refuge in the mountains.

The *constitution* which the Roman empire had received from Constantine the Great remained unimpaired, and the power of the emperors continued absolute and unrestricted. They were still crowned by the

patriarch of Constantinople, from whom they received the sacred unction, and, like Constantine, retained the Oriental manners. They assumed the title of Roman Emperors, and endeavoured to conceal their weaknesses by the assumption of pompous titles, invested with the purple of the Persian monarchs, and wearing a diadem covered with pearls and gems, and gorgeous dresses. A strict court etiquette was also kept up. The senate existed as to its external dignity, but was without influence as a political body, the advisers of the emperor being the consistorium principis, composed of the favourites of the court. In the time of Justinian, the Roman consulate was discontinued, and the dates employed were no longer calculated by consulships, the era of their public acts, but according to the year of the emperor's reign, and by the Cycle of Indictions, which recurred every fifteen years. The remoter provinces were divided into *Curiæ*, each of which was governed by a duke, appointed by the emperor. The office was not unfrequently sold to the highest bidder, and was generally arbitrary and absolute in its administration; hence the provincials were severely oppressed by the exactions of the dukes or governors, who plundered them to the last extremity.

§ 16.

THE ARABIANS.

Geography of Arabia.

The entire surface of the Arabian peninsula (including its desert of 56,000 square miles of shifting sands) is calculated to be about four times that of Germany or France, and in its physical features would seem to belong rather to Africa than to Asia. It consists of an elevated table land, declining on the north towards the Syrian desert, and encircled along the sea-coast by a belt of flat sandy soil termed *Tehâma* (*low land*). The mountainous region of the interior is named *Nejd* (*high land*). The low land is not entirely destitute of water, for although sometimes for years no rain falls, yet at others, during the months of March and April, slight showers are frequent, and the dews at all times are said to be copious. The high land has its regular rainy seasons, while in the lofty mountain ranges springs abound, the waters from which descend into the valleys and fertilize the low land. These temporary streams are termed *Wâdis*, probably the same with the Greek *Oasis*. The most fertile portion of the *Tehâma*, bordering on the Red Sea, has received from Ptolemy the name of *Arabia Felix*.

The native traditions of the Arabs lay claim to a double origin, and assert that the elder tribes are descended from Kahtan, or Joktan, or Yokthan, the son of Heber; and the junior tribes, or Mostarabi (mixed Arabs), from Ishmael, the

son of Abraham and Hagar. These wanderers are termed Beduins, or Bedouins (from bedowi, a native of the desert). They do not all dwell in tents pitched in the deserts; some dwell in towns and cities built at remote periods as emporiums of commerce, as Mecca and Medina. The only authority acknowledged by the Arab is that of his chief (*Shiekh*), whom he looks upon as the father, rather than the ruler, of his tribe: to him he yields a ready submission. In later times, in the Arabian Caliphate, the name of Emir, or commander, was given to the head of every principal tribe.

The occupations of the Arabs are those of agriculture, the breeding and tending of cattle, trade and commerce, while at the same time they are habitual plunderers. Their chief city, Mecca, was built at the intersection of two great commercial routes; and as in the East religion and commerce have always gone hand in hand, at every principal mart we find a temple erected. That of Mecca was called Kaaba, and, according to tradition, Ishmael collected the stones, while Abraham constructed the edifice. The Kaaba, like the temple of Delphi in Greece, was the sanctuary of the whole nation. The sacred stone, in which is the footprint of the patriarch, is still preserved.

The Religion of the Arabs was anciently that of Abraham. Judaism flourished in Arabia more than in any other part of the East. It was professed by many whole tribes, and became the established religion of the powerful kingdom of the Hamyarites. The Persian faith (fire worship) penetrated only a small part of North-eastern Arabia. Sabianism (*tzaba*, a host), the worshipping of the host of heaven, prevailed over nearly the whole of the peninsula. According to the Koran, deities of human and animal forms were also worshipped. The pontificate of the Kaaba, and the Zemzem (holy spring), which sent forth a fountain of beautiful clear water, to satisfy the thirst of Hagar, on Abraham's stamping the ground with his foot at the command of the angel, was in the hands of the Joshanides, out of whose possession it was wrested by the tribe of Khoza, who held the pontificate and the civil government of Mecca until 4043 A.M., when it came into the possession of the house of Haschem, whose grandson, Abdallah, was the father of the Arabian impostor Mahommed.

History of the Arabians.

The inhabitants of Central Arabia, principally those of the

province of Hedjas, to which the ancestors of Mohammed chiefly belonged, trace their origin to Aderan, a descendant of Ishmael, or Ismael. The Arabians of Yemen (Kahtanides, or Yoktanides) go still further, and trace their descent from Joktan, of the family of Shem. Between the Ismaelites and the Yoktanides there had always existed a national hatred and animosity, which led to the banishment of the former from Mecca, where they were the hereditary protectors of the sanctuaries. The Beduins have never been entirely subjugated by foreign conquerors; no power has been able long to keep them in subjection. Their external history presents a long list of wars carried on by one tribe against another; but their conflicts, which arise from very trivial causes, are neither of long duration nor sanguinary. In the sixth century, their political, religious, and moral condition had been brought into a state of ruinous decay.

1) From the time of Mohammed to the Dynasty of the Ommàiyades, 622—661.

Mohammed, or Muhammed (*much praised*), was born at Mecca (571). His parents died when he was young, and his grandfather, who had been governor of Mecca, undertook the care of the destitute child, and on his deathbed confided him to Aber-Thalib, his uncle, by whom he was educated. Before he reached the age of manhood, Mohammed became celebrated for his commercial skill and enterprize, and at length became the factor and agent of Kadijah, a rich widow, who, pleased with his conduct, gave him her hand in marriage. He now gratified his taste for contemplation, and retired from the world one month in every year, to meditate, in the caverns of Hira. In the fortieth year of his age (609) came the Leilat-al-Kadr (the night of the divine determination), in which it is very possible that he really believed, notwithstanding his subsequent impostures, the angel Gabriel called upon him to become the prophet of God. He first announced his commission to the members of his own family, only intending the establishment of an order or sect. Subsequently, by a train of circumstances, it led to the foundation of an empire. On the public preaching of Mohammed in Mecca, the Koreish, dreading the loss they should experience if idolatry fell into disrepute, and the temple should be forsaken, violently persecuted the prophet and his followers, who were compelled to seek refuge, first in Abyssinia, then in the city of Tayef, near

Mecca, to which latter place he soon retired, and during the second month (Ramadan) preached to the pilgrims, commencing, shortly after, such a career of imposture, as to shock his most faithful followers, and to endanger his cause. A revolution breaking out in Mecca, the Mohammedans were compelled to flee. On reaching Yatref they were enthusiastically received by the people, who also changed the name of the city to Medinet-al-Nabi (the city of the prophet), 622. This event is called the Hégira, or "flight," and has, since the time of Omar, been used as an epoch by the Mohammedans. Mohammed, after the flight, was, with his followers, engaged in plundering expeditions, attacking the caravans as they returned from Syria. His wars were chiefly against the Meccans, and the Jewish tribes near Medina; the latter of whom were soon subdued or massacred. Mohammed at length assumed the authority of a sovereign, and considered himself entitled to hold intercourse with the greatest monarchs of the East. He therefore addressed letters and sent ambassadors to the emperors of Persia and Constantinople, and to the king of Ethiopia, exhorting them to embrace Islamism. When Mecca was conquered, he entered the city as a pilgrim rather than a conqueror, and his first care was to destroy the idols of the Kaaba. Accompanied by a retinue of the faithful, Mohammed laid his hand on each image in succession, and said, "Truth has come, let falsehood disappear;" on which the idol was dashed to pieces. The Arabian tribes subdued, he commenced to spread the Islam over all countries, and to unite into one community, by the sword or by faith, all the nations of the earth. In 632 he made his last pilgrimage to Mecca, with great pomp and outward solemnity, frequently kissing the black stone, which had, ages since, fallen from heaven, and was supposed to contain the covenant between God and man. Having delivered his last revelation, he offered up sacrifices of camels, and liberated a portion of his slaves; after which he returned to Medina, where he was struck with a mortal disease, which closed his career of imposture, at the age of sixty-three, leaving an only daughter (Fatima), the wife of Ali, to survive him.

The Religion of the Arabs, or "*The Islam*" (resignation to the will of God), was set forth by its founder, not as a new creed, but as the restoration of the patriarchal faith of Abraham; that faith which, as he affirmed, had been taught by

Moses and the Saviour of mankind, but which had been mutilated and misrepresented by their disciples and successors. To restore to its original purity and simplicity this primitive faith, was the appointed work of Mohammed. The great fundamentals of Islamism are—1. Faith in one God, and that Mohammed is his delegated prophet. 2. Offering up of prayer at five stated periods during the day, with the face towards the holy Kebla, or temple of Mecca, accompanied by numerous and accurately prescribed forms and ceremonies, that of prayer being announced by the priests from the pulpits, and afterwards from the minarets of the mosques. 3. Alms. 4. Fasting during the month Ramadan. 5. Pilgrimage to Mecca at least *once* during life.

The religion of Mohammed consists of two parts, the *Iman* (*faith*), and the *Din* (*practice*). The articles of faith require belief in one God, in angels, in the divine books which he sent down from heaven to his prophet (104 in number), among which are the Pentateuch, or law; the Evangelium, or gospel; the book of Psalms; and the Koran. Faith in the ambassadors of God is also required, as well as in a state of final retribution, and predestination. The second part, Practice, relates to lustrations, or purifications, either by water or sand (by the latter only when the former cannot be obtained), and the various rites of prayer, etc., all of which are to be performed with the face turned towards the holy temple at Mecca. The *Sonna*, which is rejected by a portion of the faithful, comprehends all the religious traditions of the Mohammedans, and corresponds with the *Mishnah* of the Jews.

Unrestricted polygamy was sanctioned, but the use of wine and all intoxicating drinks, and swine's flesh, were strictly prohibited; and games of hazard (gambling), music, statues, or carved images were all forbidden. The day set apart for public religious worship was Friday, but the Moslem was not bound to abstain wholly from labour. The sacrifices of animals and the rite of circumcision were kept up, but no distinct order of priesthood was established. With respect to proselytes, whoever embraced the Mohammedan faith became a member of the new state, and was no longer regarded as a stranger; Jews and Christians were tolerated on payment of tribute, but death awaited the followers of all other religions.

The Four Caliphs of the tribe of Koreish, 632—661.

1. Abu Bekr (632—634), the father-in-law of the pro-

phet, was recognised as his successor, and by his promptitude disconcerted the plans of those Arab tribes which had determined to throw off the yoke imposed on them. In the end, under his generals, the whole of Arabia embraced Islamism; but as in this war a considerable number of the prophet's companions perished, Abu Bekr, fearing that the revelations of Mohammed might be either lost or dispersed, issued an order for their collection into the Koran, an order which was reversed in the time of the Caliph Othman. To give employment to his numerous army, he seized the favourable period for attacking the neighbouring Byzantine empire, and that of Persia, both weakened by successive revolutions. Khaled, the general of Abu, subdued the provinces of the Irak, and commenced a glorious career in Syria, most of which, in less than two years, he subdued. In the midst of these conquests Abu Bekr died, having previously transferred the reins of government to Omar.

2. Omar (634—644).—Omar may be regarded as the proper founder of the Arabian empire, and his government, the most brilliant period of the caliphate. His generals obtained signal victories over the Greeks, near the lake of Tiberias (made more easy by the treachery of the Byzantine commander), and over the Damascenes, when the capital was taken (635). The conquest of Syria was now soon completed, and Palestine fell into the hands of the Arabians. Jerusalem surrendered in 637, but the patriarch refused to open the gates of the city until the arrival of Omar, who set out from Arabia to receive the precious deposit. On his arrival, he would not enter to settle the terms of capitulation, but had his tent of camel's hair cloth erected outside the walls, and sat upon the bare earth. The terms granted were remarkable for their moderation; civil and religious liberties were secured to the Syrians on the payment of an annual tribute. The fall of the maritime power of Phœnicia followed, by which the Arabs became possessed of a navy. About the same time the Arabian war was being successfully carried on in Persia, the victory of Cadesia (636) and of Nahavend (642) hastened the overthrow of the Persian monarchy. Egypt was invaded at the same time by Omar's celebrated general Amru, who being assisted by the Coptic Christians who were oppressed by the Greek emperor on account of their faith, obtained, first, the victory of Pelusium, and afterwards that of Alexandria (640),

which threw open the whole of Egypt to the Arabians, who had lost during the wars 23,000 of the faithful. The destruction of the library, which, it is said, furnished fuel to heat the 4,000 baths of Alexandria for six months, by order of Omar, is not improbable, although mentioned for the first time by Abulfaraj six centuries later. Omar was assassinated by a slave, whose requests he had denied (644).

3. Othman (644—656).—The successor of Omar was eighty years of age when he was installed third caliph. Under his generals the conquest of Persia was completed, which extended the Saracen sway to the Oxus. Northern Africa, as far as the shores of the Atlantic, was also subdued; the island of Cyprus was rendered tributary; Rhodes was conquered, and the remains of the celebrated Colossus sold. The Arabian arms were also successfully employed against the Greeks. Cilicia and Asia Minor, as far as the Euxine, were overrun, and Constantinople was even menaced. These conquests, however, only served to increase the love of luxury and dissipation. The Arabians now began to rival the monarchs of the East, and to prefer the splendours of a court to the glories of the field. Othman lavished treasures upon his favourites, who were unworthy, and in the hour of peril deserted him. The Charigites (Kharadjis), a new sect, who declared riches to be the source of crime, openly rebelled, and demanded justice from the caliph, whose guards deserted him. He was assassinated by a son of Abu Bekr (656), and Ali succeeded to the caliphate.

4. Ali (656—661).—This individual had no part in the murder of Othman, and was much respected by the Moslems. He, too, was a son-in-law of the prophet (husband of Fatima). The Koreishites declared him caliph, which was also seconded by the majority of the Arabs. Ayesha, one of the numerous wives of the prophet, was, however, his mortal enemy, in consequence of his having cast out insinuations against her chastity. She therefore stirred up the soldiery to revolt, taking the lead in person; and, assisted by two Arab chiefs, Talha and Zobeir, made preparations to oppose the caliph. The two armies met near Busra, at Koraiaba, and, after a dreadful slaughter, the victory was declared in favour of Ali. Ayesha was taken prisoner, Talha perished on the field of battle, and Zobeir, who endeavoured to escape, was overtaken and beheaded. This first battle between the Moslem troops has received the name of the Battle of the Camel, from the fact

that Ayesha, who headed her own troops, was seated in a palanquin on the back of a camel. About the same time, Moawiyah, the deposed governor of Syria, caused himself to be proclaimed caliph; and among his most powerful partisans was the celebrated Amru, the conqueror and governor of Egypt. Ali marched against them, and the two armies, according to tradition, remained for a twelvemonth face to face. Ninety battles were fought, and 70,000 Moslems perished. At length the matter was, according to the laws of the Koran, referred to arbitrators, who decided that neither should possess the caliphate, but that a third party should be elected. Abu Musa, one of the arbitrators, declared Ali to be unseated, upon which Amru dexterously proclaimed that Moawiyah must therefore, of necessity, be retained. Hence the schism between the Shiah* and the Sunnis. At length three Karadjis devoted themselves for the destruction of the three men who caused such effusion of blood. The two appointed to assassinate Amru and Moawiyah were arrested. Ali alone perished, in the sixty-third year of his age, in the very year which the prophet had predicted should close the caliphate (661). Hassan, his eldest son, was set up by the Shiah; but being of a peaceable disposition, he entered into an engagement with Moawiyah, and resigned the caliphate, after having held it for six months. He was allowed a pension for life, which was terminated by poison administered by his wife, who acted under the guidance of Yezid, the son of Moawiyah.

2) The Ommaiyad Caliphs, 661—750.

Moawiyah I., great grandson of Omaiyah, a Koreishite, removed the residence of the caliph from Medina to Damascus. He reigned for twenty years, during which period he turned his arms against the Turks beyond the Oxus, and overran the Greek provinces of Asia Minor and Africa. For seven years he successively attacked Constantinople, while other armies ravaged Libya, where the caliphate of Kairwan, or Cairoan, was founded. He made the caliphate hereditary in his family, by having it secured during his lifetime to Yezid.

* The Shiites, or Shiah, consider the first caliphs to have been usurpers; the Sunnis, or Sunnites, declare that they were legitimate monarchs, elected according to the Sonna, or traditional laws. The Turks, Egyptians, and Arabs are of the Sunnite sect; the Persians, and a great majority of the Tartars, and several Indian principalities, are of the Shiite, or Shiah, sect.

a) *Conquests in the West.*—Under the thirteen caliphs of this dynasty, the Arabian conquests may be said to have attained their utmost limits. Akbah, the general of Moawiyah, had already penetrated beyond the Atlas Mountains, and seized a portion of Morocco; but, by a series of reverses, some of the towns and cities west of Barca were lost. On the arrival, however, of Hassan, Carthage fell, and soon after the whole of Byzantine Africa was subjugated. At first the Berber tribes and the Romans refused to acknowledge the caliphs and embrace Islamism, but at length some took refuge in the mountains, while the majority embraced the Moslem faith. Scarcely had Africa been conquered, when the Arabians were offered an introduction into Spain, and Julian, a Visigothic chief of Spain, who considered the assumption of royalty on the part of Roderic an usurpation, offered his assistance. Musa despatched Tarik, his lieutenant, across the strait with 500 Arabs (710). He landed at Gebel-al-Tarik (Gibraltar), where he was joined by a host of disaffected Christian Goths, and in 711 he again landed with reinforcements consisting of 5,000 men, and, after some lesser conflicts, met Roderic himself with 100,000 troops, near Xeres, on the Guadelete. After seven days' hard fighting, the conflict terminated in favour of the Arabs, who had been materially assisted by the desertion of Opas, the bishop of Seville, and other nobles, including the sons and other relatives and friends of Witiza. King Roderic disappeared. Musa, jealous of the success of his lieutenant, ordered the operations to be suspended; Tarik, however, pursued his conquests, and on the arrival of Musa, he was thrown into prison. The dissensions between Musa and Tarik led the Caliph Walid to recall both, just as they were about to cross the Pyrenees. The conduct of Tarik was approved, but Musa was fined, and publicly exposed to the heat of the sun, and imprisoned, by Suleiman, who had succeeded Walid in the caliphate. Meanwhile, his two sons, whom he had left in charge of the governments of Africa and Spain, were beheaded by the orders of the caliph, and the head of the elder, Abdelaziz, sent to Damascus, where it was exhibited to the father, who was asked if he recognised the features. The Arabians imposed heavy tributes upon their Christian Spanish subjects, but left them in undisturbed possession of their property, laws, and religion. The new lieutenant of the caliph in Spain, Zama, crossed the Pyrenees, seizing Narbonne and all that

part of Gaul which had remained in the hands of the Visigoths. In 732, Abderrahman made a still further attempt to wrest Gaul from the dominion of the Franks. Charles Martel met the Arabians on the plain of Poitiers, and defeated them. Abderrahman fell, and Europe, probably to this day, owes its religious liberties and freedom to the victor of Poitiers, Charles the Hammerer. (Comp. § 13.)

b) Also in the East, Moawiyah had extended his conquests north to Samarkand, and south to the Indus. Taking advantage of the disturbed state of the Persian province of Armenia, the Arabians wrested it out of the hands of Sapor, and also a portion of Asia Minor from the Greeks. Constantinople was twice besieged, but in vain; the Greek fire saved the capital, and burned up the fleets of the Arabians, who also lost upwards of 100,000 men by pestilence, famine, and cold, and an unprecedented winter which then prevailed.

At the period of its greatest extent, the Empire of the Caliphs contained,

a) In *Europe*, nearly the whole of Spain, with the Narbonne territory in Southern Gaul, the Balearic or Spanish Isles, with Corsica, Sardinia, etc., and no inconsiderable tracts of country in Southern Italy.

b) In *Africa*, the whole northern coast to the desert and Egypt.

c) In *Asia*, South-western Asia, from the Mediterranean Sea, and the Arabian or Persian Gulf, to the Mustag Mountains (Thian Shan), on the Upper Indus, and the territory on the Lower Indus; north to the Caucasus, the Caspian, or Chazar, and the Aral Seas, the Jihon, or Juxartes. In Asia Minor, the province of Cilicia to Tersoos (Tarsus).

During the period of the extension of the empire, the reigning dynasty severely oppressed the provinces by their enormous exactions. They were also engaged in cruel wars against the descendants of Ali, who ruled in Irak, and formed the Fatimide party, whose banners were green. To these were opposed the Ommaiyads, who were distinguished by their white standards. The wars between the rival powers were long and sanguinary. Abbas, the great grandson of Abbas, the uncle of the prophet, whose banner was black, ultimately raised the whole of Asia in favour of the descendants of Ali. Merwan II., the last of the Ommaiyads, was defeated and killed in Egypt (750), when peace was concluded, and twenty-four

of the family of Ommaiyad were invited to a banquet of reconciliation at Damascus, when, with the exception of one who contrived to escape, they were cruelly butchered, and the feast immediately took place, amidst the dying groans and agonies of the sufferers. This was only as an introduction to that general massacre in which 600,000 Ommaiyads were murdered in cold blood in Khorassan alone. The throne of the Abassides was now, under the influence of Abu-Moslem, the real chief of the Abassidian party, firmly established. Abderrahman, the Ommaiyad who escaped, after quitting Syria, and traversing Africa as a fugitive, on his arrival in the neighbourhood of Marocco, learned that the white flag was still triumphant in Spain. He therefore crossed the strait, and presented himself to his friends on the coast of Andalos (Andalusia), and was elected to the caliphate of Cordoba. (Comp. § 11.)

Constitution.—The authority of the caliphs was spiritual as well as temporal. The latter might be resigned, but the former, as in the case of Hassan, was held to be inalienable. He remained Imam, although he resigned his dignity as caliph. During the earlier period of the caliphate, the caliphs rendered an account of their administration every week to the people, who assembled for the occasion, as well as to take part in the deliberations. When, under Moawiyah, the caliphate became hereditary, it also ceased to be of a democratic character, and soon became despotic and absolute. The first caliphs were remarkable for the simplicity of their mode of living, especially the stern Omar, who, although the sovereign of nearly the whole of Asia, yet frequently slept upon the steps of the mosque at Medina, and lived upon barley bread and water. At length, the immense ransoms and tributes which they received from their enemies so enriched them, that they began to imitate the voluptuous and luxurious orientals, from whom the greater portion of their wealth had been derived. The governors of the provinces, too, at the same time obtained, in addition to the civil authority, the military command; hence, in after times, they ruled as independent princes, and became formidable foes to the caliph.

§ 17.

THE NEW PERSIAN EMPIRE, 226—651.

(Sassanidæ.)

The extent of the empire founded by Artaxerxes I. (Ardeschir), the son of Sassan, varied considerably at different periods. Under Chosroes I. it extended from the Mediterranean to the Indus, and from the Jaxartes as far as Arabia and Egypt. Under Chosroes II. it embraced Yemen in Arabia. The four great provinces into which it was divided were Assyria, Media, Persis or Persia, and Bactriana. The imperial residence was Ctesiphon on the eastern bank of the Tigris, which, with the opposite city of Seleucia, formed Madain, or the double city.

The Persians were almost always engaged in warfare, and were as formidable in a retreat, from their peculiar mode of fighting, as when they faced the enemy in order. Their wars were chiefly with the nations on their frontiers—the Greeks and Romans; and the Turks and the Arabians. (See § 15). Next to the founder (Artaxerxes), who professed to be a lineal descendant of the ancient Persian monarchs, ranked Chosroes I., known in the East under the name of Nurshivan the Just. He was a contemporary of Justinian, and terminated the war commenced by his father Bahram against the Byzantine empire. Instigated, however, by the East Goths he renewed the war, and attacked the Syrian province; but on the appearance of Belisarius he retired, and employed all his energies for the recovery of the Lazic territories, which had revolted. After a long contest, the Colchians agreed to the payment of an annual tribute, and the war was concluded. The empire, during the forty-eight years of his government, was rather remarkable for its internal prosperity than for the extension of its boundaries. The provinces were governed by viziers, whose conduct was so severely scrutinized that there was no room allowed for venality or peculation. Legislation, war, and finance underwent considerable improvements. Agriculture was fostered and protected, while the artificial irrigation of the soil rendered it more productive. Upper and lower schools of learning were established, and the most renowned scholars of Greece and Asia frequented the Persian court, where Chosroes caused the works most celebrated in Greece and India to be translated for the benefit of his subjects. He died at the advanced age of eighty; and left his unworthy and odious son Ormuz or Hormuz to succeed him.—(*For the dissolution of the Empire of the Arabs, see § 16.*)

C. The North-east of Europe.

§ 18.

THE SCLAVES OR SCLAVONIANS.

The earliest historic records represent the Slaves as having immigrated into Europe from the high lands of Central Asia. On their arrival, they probably mingled with the Thracians, or Pelasgi, the Celts, and the Lithuanians; between the two former of whom and the Sclavi a great similarity existed in religion, language, and manners, etc., which was of a European rather than of an Asiatic character.

The primitive, native, and general name of the Slaves was Sorbi, Sorbes. The earliest name by which they are mentioned by ancient (chiefly German) authors is that of Wends (Venedi). Slaves and Antes were the designations applied in more recent times to two of the principal tribes.

On the arrival of the Huns (Avars?) from the remote regions of Asia, some of the Slavish tribes (as the Alani, etc.) were subdued, and subsequently became amalgamated with them, and wandered along the northern shores of the Euxine until they settled in Dacia and Pannonia. On the dissolution of the Hunnish empire in the middle of the fifth century, partly on account of the great increase of their numbers, and partly because of the advance of the Avars and Bulgares from the north-east into the south-west of Europe, the Slaves migrated towards the west as far as the Elbe and the Saale, which had been deserted by the German and Suevic tribes which had migrated south into Gaul and Upper Italy, etc. They also spread themselves southward across the Danube into the former Roman province of Dacia, the territory of which they occupied from the Adriatic to the Ægean Sea, where, being an agricultural people, they purposed to remain, rearing their flocks and herds in the fruitful plains of those regions. The Slaves subsequently spread themselves over the half of Europe, and are divided, according to language, as follows:—

a) South-eastern Slaves: the three principal nations of which are the Russians, the Bulgarians, and the Illyrians.

b) Western Slaves: to which belong the Letes, or Leches, (Poles), including the Silesians and the Pomeranians, the Czechis (Bohemians), with the Moravians, and the Polabic races between the Saale, the Elbe, and the Oder.

SECOND PERIOD.

From the Accession of the Carolingians and Abassides until the period of the Crusades, 752—1100.

§ 19.

GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF EUROPE AT THE TIME OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1) In Spain: the Emirate of Cordoba, north of the Douro; the Christian kingdom of Asturias.

2) The Franks had already, under the Merovingians, possessed themselves of all the territories between the Pyrenees in the south, and the Ems in the north. Under Charlemagne, the Spanish March; the kingdom of the Langobardi in Upper and Central Italy; and the territories of the Saxons were added, with a part of the kingdom of the Avars founded by them in the ancient Dacia, and extending over the province of Pannonia, first, as far as the Ems, and subsequently to the Theiss.

The empire of Charlemagne embraced—1. Neustria, or Western France. 2. Aquitania, with Vasconia. 3. Septimania, or Gothia. 4. The Spanish March. 5. Burgundy, with Provence. 6. Austrasia, or Eastern France. 7. Frisia. 8. Alemannia. 9. Boiaria (Bavaria), with its Marches. 10. Saxonia. 11. Carinthia (March of Carantana). 12. The central lands of the Sclavi (Bohemia and Moravia). 13. Langobardi. 14. The Duchy of Friuli. 15. The Exarchate (Ravenna), and the Pentapolis (Romania). 16. The Duchy of Tuscya. 17. The Duchy of Rome (Ducatus Romanus, or the Patrimony of St. Peter). 18. The Duchy of Spoleto. 19. Sardinia and Corsica.

3) The Bulgares. A Sclavonic Tartar (Turkish?) tribe originally on the river Kama, where a Bulgarian kingdom was established. Descending the Volga they wandered along the northern shores of the Euxine, and in the seventh century founded an extensive kingdom along the Danube and the Hæmus, which was afterwards extended across the Danube to the rise of the Theiss.

4) The empire of the Chazars—an eastern Germanic race strongly mixed with the Turkish—extending from the Volga to the Dniester, and embracing what is now Southern Russia. This tribe maintained themselves against the Persians, the Greeks (Romans), and the Russians, but fell on the invasion of Europe by Zinghis Khan.

5) The North of Europe at this period was partly occupied by the kingdoms of the Normans, the Danes, and the Swedes, united by one common origin, and partly by Finnish or Tschudish tribes. Towards the end of the ninth century, however, five Norman states arose: a) out of the ruins of about thirty petty chieftaincies, which were subjected to the sway of and animated by Harald Harfagr, king of Norway, whose government extended to the White Sea; b) Sweden, by the union of the Goths (Gottland) and Swedes under one government; c) Denmark, when the kings of the Danish Isles and in Juteland recognised Gosun, the elder, as their king; d) Iceland, discovered and peopled by the Norwegian chiefs, and erected into a republic; e) the kingdom of Man, founded also by Norwegian adventurers, and embracing the groups of islands off the coast of Scotland.

6) The British Isles. In Britain seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms or principalities were founded, which were afterwards reduced to three and finally (827) united into one, when they formed the single kingdom of Angle Land or Engalaland. On the western coasts, the native Britons long maintained themselves. The kingdoms of the Picts and Scots were (838) united into one, that of Scotland. Ireland was divided into five sovereignties—namely, Ulster, Connaught, Meath, Munster, and Leinster.

7) The Byzantine or Greek empire embraced the country south of the Danube, the Venetian States (consisting of the islands of the Lagoon and the territory in Upper Italy), Istria, the Duchy of Naples, and Southern Calabria. (Comp. § 8.) While the Roman provinces on the Danube had to contend with the Slavish tribes, which were continually advancing towards the left bank of that river, single branches of which continued to locate themselves here and there over the whole western portion of the empire. The Asiatic provinces were assailed by the Arabians.

In Lower Italy, the several Langobardian principalities still maintained themselves against the continued aggressions of the Greeks and Saracens, and afterwards against the Normans; and existed in a greater or lesser degree of independence until the eleventh century.

North-east of the empire of Charlemagne were the Wendes (Venedi) and Sorbes, or Sorabes, the Bohemians (Czechi) and Moravians, tributaries; while further east were numerous Slavish tribes still ruled over by native princes.

§ 20.

THE FRANCONIAN EMPIRE UNDER THE CARLO-VINGIANS, 752—887.

1. Pepin the Short, 752—768.

In 752, Pepin, the Mayor of the Palace, was raised to the throne of the Franks by the authority of the Pontiff Zachary, and was, therefore, bound in some measure to support the apostolic see. When the Lombards, whose territories surrounded on all sides the Roman duchy, not only seized a part of its possessions, but compelled the payment of an annual tribute, Stephen II., who had succeeded to Zachary, applied to the Greek emperor for assistance, for Rome was yet a dependency of the eastern empire. The Pope not succeeding, proceeded to France, where the comitia of the Franks assembled by Pepin pledged itself to defend him. Before this, however, Stephen, who took up his abode at St. Denis, crowned Pepin for the second time (754), as well as his queen Bertrada, and his two sons Charles and Carloman. He also conferred upon Pepin the title of Patrician of the Romans. Pepin marched towards Lombardy, and defeated Astolphus, who promised restoration of all which he had taken from the Roman duchy. Astolphus, indignant at the conduct of the Romans and Franks (755), prepared to attack Rome itself with a large army, when the pope again earnestly solicited the help of Pepin, which was promptly rendered. The Lombards were defeated at Pavia, and gladly consented to the terms imposed upon them by Pepin—namely, to restore the towns of the exarchate of Ravenna, and to deliver Pentapolis and the duchy of Rome to the Church of Rome, and not to the Roman empire. The keys of these cities were laid at the feet of the pope, and thus was laid the foundation of the temporal power of the papal see.

In Southern Gaul, Pepin, assisted by the Visigoths, attacked the Saracens. Narbonne was besieged, when the Christian population massacred the Mohammedans who guarded the ramparts, and the city fell into the hands of the Franks, which was now for the first time united to the monarchy. The Saxons (753) threw off the yoke, but Pepin crossed the Rhine, and, having defeated them, compelled them to pay a heavier amount of tribute than before. The Aquitanian war lasted nine years (from 760 to 768), and was remarkable for its frightful devastations. Berri and Auvergne were wholly destroyed. Bourges, Thouars, Limousin, and Issaudon were fortified, and counts placed in them to secure the conquered territories, as also were Poitiers,

Limoges, etc. Subsequently the whole of Aquitania was, on the assassination of Guaifer, its duke, added to the crown (768).

Pepin appointed his two sons as his successors; and, before all the grandees of the state, including the bishops and prelates of the church, divided the monarchy between them. The West was assigned to Charles, and the East to Carloman; an inequality of division which afterwards was the cause of centuries of revolutions and civil war.

2. Charlemagne (768—814) was born 742, but where is uncertain. The ambition of Charles armed the brothers against each other, and but for the death of Carloman (771) would have ended in a civil war between them. Charles, on the death of his brother, convoked the comitia of that part of France which had been assigned to his brother, which assembly suffered him to seize his dominions without any regard to the sons of Carloman, who, with their mother, fled to Lombardy.

Wars of Charlemagne.

a) Conquest of Lombardy, 773—774. Charles, yielding probably to the wishes of Bertha, his mother, had repudiated his first wife (Himiltrude?), by whom he had no family, to marry Desirea, the daughter of Didier, king of the Lombards; but a year after, he divorced her, without assigning any reason, and conveyed her back to her father. Soon after he married his third wife, Hildegarde, one of the daughters of the Duke of Swabia, 771. The king of the Lombards, exasperated at the conduct of Charlemagne, resolved to support the claims of the sons of Carloman to the throne of their father, and proceeded to Rome to have them consecrated by the newly elected pope (Hadrian I.) The pontiff refusing to grant this request, the Lombards seized upon the Pentapolis, and threatened the capital itself. Hadrian despatched a messenger to Charlemagne, who brought the matter before the comitia; this assembly resolved upon the defence of the Roman territories. Pavia was besieged, and Charles passed on to Rome, where he was received with great pomp and solemnity. Charlemagne confirmed the act of donation which Pepin, his father, had made to the church; and which probably included Spoleto and the greater part of the kingdom of Lombardy, which Charlemagne was occupied in conquering. Pavia, on the return of Charles to the army, capitulated, having sustained a siege of six months. Didier, or Desiderius, and his

wife, with the widow of Carloman and her two sons, were taken prisoners; and Charlemagne assumed the title of King of the Lombards (or of Italy) 774.

Nearly the whole kingdom of Lombardy became Franconian. The Duchy of Beneventum alone remained free, while the Duchy of Spoletum passed over to the church. The constitutional privileges of the Lombards, however, were secured to them. In 776, Rosgaudes, the governor of Friuli, with the dukes and counts of Lombardy, driven to extremes by the denunciations of the pope, endeavoured to place Adelgise, the son of Desiderius, upon the throne. Charles hastened from the banks of the Rhine, and entered Lombardy by the Tyrol. Rosgaudes was taken prisoner and beheaded. The Lombard counts were changed, and Franks everywhere placed in their stead.

b) Wars against the Saxons, 772—804. The Saxons (a German race) differed essentially from the Franks, and were closely connected with the Normans. They were divided into Westphalians (between the Rhine and Ems), Eastphalians (between the Weser and the Elbs), and Nordalbingians (on the other side of the Elbe as far as the Eider, the primitive land of the Saxons). From the earliest periods, the Saxons and the Franks had been hostile to each other; and ever since the accession of Clotaire I. the Merovingian Franks had been engaged in continual struggles with them, which only ended in the accession of territory, and the imposition of an annual tribute, the payment of which was, after a short time, withheld. The Saxons, with just as much obstinacy, resisted the efforts made to Christianize them; they massacred the missionaries and their converts at Davenser, and destroyed the churches in which they were assembled. At the diet of Worms (the Field of May) war was declared against the Saxons, and their entire subjection and conversion were resolved upon. The political aim of this was to effect the consolidation of all the Germanic races into one great political power or sovereignty, which could only be secured by the subjection of the Saxons, and the extending of the boundaries of the empire towards the north-east. The religious object of the war was to win over the Saxons to the Christian faith, and thus to secure the same religion for the people of Eastern Franconia and Thuringia. Both these objects the Saxons obstinately and resolutely endeavoured to defeat.

In the first nine years of the war, Charles, with his army, penetrated the Saxon territories to the Weser, devastating all

the country as he passed along: subsequently he carried his victorious army even to the Elbe, when the fortifications were destroyed, and hostages delivered up by the Saxons as security for the fulfilment of the conditions imposed on them. But no sooner had Charles departed for Italy or Spain, to carry on the war in those quarters, than the Saxons revolted, and even ravaged the frontiers of the Franconian empire. They were, however, on the approach of the king, always reduced to submission.

First Campaign (772).—Rising from the Field of May, at Worms, Charles crossed the Rhine at Mayence, and took the Saxon fortress of Ehresburg (Stadtbergen on the Diemel), and overthrew the idol Hermansul, the object of veneration at Merseberg, and which seems to have been a column raised in honour of all the Germanic nation (Herman-Saule), probably from Herman, the conqueror of Varus, and the liberator of Germany. This campaign was the longest and the most cruel which Charles ever undertook, and was ended by a treaty, for the fulfilment of which twelve hostages were delivered up.

Second Campaign (772).—During the absence of Charles in Italy, the Saxons reconquered the fortress of Ehresburg, and, under the command of Witikind, penetrated the Franconian territories on the lower Rhine, overran Hesse, and would have destroyed the temple erected by St. Boniface at Fritslar, but that they feared the God of the Christians. Charles assembled the Franks, and held the Field of May at Duren; and finding them ready to second him in taking vengeance on the Saxons, he led his army across the Rhine, and took the Saxon mountain fort of Siegeberg, and raised the fortifications of Ehresburg, which the Saxons had destroyed, and garrisoned it. At Brunenberg he defeated them with great slaughter, when he crossed the Weser. He again met them at Buch, where the Westphalian king took the oath of fidelity. The Angarian Saxons soon followed their example, and bound themselves by oaths and hostages to observe fidelity. Charles now returned to his castle of Schelestadt, in Alsatia, to celebrate the festivities of Christmas.

Third Campaign (776).—In the spring of 776, during the absence of Charles on his second Italian campaign, the Saxons again surprised the castle of Ehresburg, and attacked that also of Siegeberg; but they had been, before his arrival, repulsed. Charles therefore recrossed the Julian Alps, and returned in haste to Worms, where he had convoked the assembly. On the breaking up of the diet, Charlemagne advanced rapidly into Saxony, before the country was prepared for defence. On his arrival at the source of the Lippe, the Saxons begged hard for mercy, and swore that they were ready to become Christians. They submitted to be baptized, gave new hostages, and consented to the rebuilding of the fortress of Ehresburg, and the building of another on the Lippe. Charles retired to his palace of Heristal, upon the Meuse. Not feeling himself assured, however, of their submission, he proceeded no further from their frontiers. The

Field of May was now convoked at Paderborn, in the midst of the Saxon territory, to which assembly the Saxons were also invited. They took part in the deliberations, and confirmed their preceding engagements. Witikind, however, the most powerful among the Westphalian sovereigns, was absent. Despairing of being able to resist the Franks, he had passed into Scandinavia to obtain assistance. Notwithstanding, the Saxons, with many of their chief nobility, were baptized.

Fourth and Fifth Campaigns (779—780).—Whilst Charles was engaged against the Saracens on the other side of the Pyrenees, Witikind had returned to Saxony, and stirred up his countrymen to rebellion. They ravaged the country of the Ripuarian Franks, from Duisburg as far as the confluence of the Rhine and Moselle, carrying fire and sword into all the palaces as well as into the villages, and destroyed the sacred edifices. Charles ordered the Germans and Austrasians of his army to defend their homes against the Saxons, whom they overtook laden with booty at a village in Hesse (Badenfeld or Lihesi?), and annihilated them as they were endeavouring to cross the Adern (778). In the spring of 779, Charles took the field himself, and crossing the Rhine early, advanced to the Lippe. The Saxons endeavoured to make a stand at Buckholz, but were defeated. Charles penetrated into the country, and compelled one canton after another to sue for peace and embrace Christianity, as a means of escaping massacre. The Westphalians submitted first, then those of Bardengau, and several of the Nordalbingians were baptized. The Angarians and the Eastphalians afterwards came to Charles, at his seat of Medfull, on the Weser, and took the oath of fidelity, and delivered up hostages. During the winter, the king led back his army to the Rhine, and sojourned at Worms; but on the return of spring, he again entered Saxony at the head of his army. He visited the fortress of Ehresburg, and, ascending the Lippe, turned east, and established himself on the banks of the Obacre at Ohrheim, where he had appointed to meet the East Saxons, who were baptized. He next halted at the confluence of the Ohre and the Elbe, where he settled the misunderstandings of the Saxons on the left bank of the Rhine with the Venedi (a Slavonian race) on the right bank. Charles now marched back to France, and disbanded his army (780).

After the lapse of two years, the war was renewed (782). Witikind, as soon as Charles had re-crossed the Rhine, returned from his hiding place in some part of Norman Germany or Scandinavia, and persuaded the Saxons again to take up arms. Of these movements Charles was ignorant, but he learned that the Slavonian Sorabes had crossed the Saale, and invaded Thuringia and Saxony. He therefore despatched three of his chief officers with orders to assemble armies composed of Saxons and Austrasians, people most interested in resisting the brigandages of the Slavonians. On learning the defection of the Saxons, the three officers entered Saxony with

Austrasians alone, and were joined by the Ripuarian Franks under Count Thederic, a kinsman of Charles. The armies of the Saxons and the forces of the Franks met north of Mount Sonnetal, near Munder. The Franks under the three lieutenants began the attack, and before the arrival of Thederic, who was to have occupied the opposite bank of the Weser, they were surrounded, and almost all massacred. Charles now headed the military operations himself, and entered Saxony; but the armies which had vanquished his lieutenants had dispersed; Witikind had retired to the Normans. The Franks under Thederic had experienced no resistance, and the Saxon counts obeyed the call of their monarch to assemble with the comitia of the Franks, when Witikind was accused of exciting the Saxons to revolt. Charles, however, demanded the surrender of those who had borne arms in the campaign, a deed which they basely complied with: 4,500 were beheaded in one day, at a place called Verden, on the banks of the Aller; after which sanguinary execution Charles retired to his palace at Thionville. The Saxons, incensed at this act of savage cruelty, flew to arms on every side, but it was in vain. Charles, who had been informed of their movements, hastily left Thionville at the head of his army, with which he rapidly passed the Rhine, and entered the Saxon territory. The Saxons awaited him at Theutmold (Dethmold), near Mount Osnegg, where they were nearly all cut to pieces; the Franks also sustaining a loss so considerable, that Charles was obliged to retire to Paderborn, to await the arrival of reinforcements from France. The Saxons, not expecting any clemency from the conqueror, assembled another army on the banks of the Hase, in Westphalia (near Osnabruck). Here they were conquered a second time: those who did not perish on the field of battle were carried away into captivity. The Frankish army returned loaded with the spoils of the vanquished. Charles retired to his palace at Heristal; and having gained two such victories, resolved not to grant the Saxons any respite until they were entirely subjugated; the greatest difficulty, however, in incorporating them with the Franks, consisted in compelling the adoption of the Christian faith.

The campaign of 784 was opened by the destruction of all the Westphalian villages, and those of East Saxony were afterwards devastated. Charlemagne intended to proceed fur-

ther north, but was compelled by the inundations, caused by the excessive rains, to take up his abode in the fortress of Ehrenburg, from which, in fine weather, his troops sallied out and ravaged the surrounding territory. Charles summoned the assembly (Field of May) to meet at Paderborn; after which he advanced to Bardengau, where he was informed that the Saxon chief Witikind and his followers were on the opposite side of the Elbe, and disposed to treat. Witikind and Alboin, his brother, in the name of their countrymen, swore to remain in peace and obedience, and received baptism. Charles loaded them with presents, and dismissed them; and during eight years Saxony remained at peace. In 793, Count Thederic, being commanded to raise an army in Frisia to assist Charles against the Avars, was proceeding, as he had done before, to cross Saxony into Bohemia, when, on his arrival at Rhiustri (Rustringen) on the Weser, he was surprised by the Saxons, who had revolted, and with his army cut to pieces. All Saxony had now thrown off the Christian faith, and returned to the worship of its national deities. Charles, accompanied by his son, prepared to chastise the rebellious Saxons. On his appearance at Suitfeloe, they agreed to all the conditions proposed, and delivered up hostages. In the following spring, the Saxons did not assemble at the Field of May, over which Charles presided, at his palace of Kuffenstein; he therefore resolved to punish their thus neglecting to rally under his banner. Charles ravaged the country, and established himself at Bardengau, where he awaited the Obotrites and the Weltzi, or Weletaibi, whom he had appointed to meet, in concert with him to lay waste the Saxon territory. The Saxons, however, waylaid the Weltzian king and his army, which they cut to pieces. This proceeding so exasperated Charles, that he, with the Obotrites, devastated with fire and sword all which they could reach. After demanding fresh hostages, the king returned to Achen (Aix-la-Chapelle). Every year Charles resolved an expedition into Saxony; but now he determined to weaken what he could not subdue. He burned the villages and massacred the inhabitants; and when he accepted hostages, almost every family was required to give up one. These he distributed throughout every village in France and Italy, even to the utmost extremities of his empire. His camp was established at Herr Stall (quarters of the army—Heristal), which he made the centre of all his future excursions into Saxony.

In 798, the Saxons surprised the royal lieutenants (*Missi Domini*), and massacred them; they also murdered Charles' ambassador to Siegfried, king of Denmark. These events so irritated Charles, that he ravaged with fire and sword all the territory which extends from the Weser to the Elbe. But the Saxons on the right bank of the Elbe (also called Normans), not having been proceeded against for these massacres, took courage, and attacked the Obotrites, who were the allies of the Franks. Charles despatched his lieutenant Eberion to the assistance of the Sclavonian duke, and defeated the Saxons at Swenden, with great slaughter. In 802, the Obotrites took possession of the Saxon territory on the right bank of the Elbe, which, however, they were compelled to abandon with all their dwellings, and to accept in exchange establishments in the interior of the empire. In 804, the twenty-third and last of the Saxon wars, Charles abandoned to his faithful allies, the Obotrites, the remaining territory of the Norman Saxons. Those who were not carried off by the army into the half-deserted provinces of Gaul and Italy, escaped to the Danish dominions beyond the Eyder, where they communicated to the people of the North that hatred of the Franks which was so fearfully manifested in their inroads upon the coasts of France.*

In the extension of the Franconian monarchy, and the distribution of the Saxons, lay the germ of its own dissolution. The latter caused an amalgamation of the Saxon with the other Germanic races, and opposed the progress of the Roman; hence, in after times, arose a nation and people which entirely separated from the Gallican, Franconian, and the Italian-Lombardian parts of the empire. The division of the kingdom by the treaty of Verdun, therefore, produced, in the next generation, a reaction quite opposed to the policy of Charlemagne, who had been straining to merge the different nations into one common mass.

For the support of Christianity among the Saxons, eight bishoprics were founded by Charlemagne; namely, Munster and Osnabruck for the northern half of Westphalia (the southern was in the jurisdiction of the archbishopric of Cologne); Paderborn and Minden for the Engernians; Bremen, Verden, and Hildesheim for the Eastphalians; and Halberstadt for the Saxons of Thuringia.

c) War in Spain, 778.—When Charles summoned

* There was no peace formally concluded at Selz, as has been generally supposed by Luden, Schaumann, etc.

the assembly at Paderborn, during his *third* expedition against the Saxons, Ibu al Arabi, the Mussulman governor of Saragossa, appeared among the Saxon lords, accompanied by some of the Arabian chiefs, to solicit the protection of the monarch against the Emir of Cordoba (Cordova), Abderrahman I. Charles immediately proceeded towards Spain, crossed the Pyrenees by St. Jean-Pied-de-Port, arrived before Pampeluna, and took it; Saragossa fell, and Ibu al Arabi was restored. Barscheluna (Barcelona), Huesca, Jacca, and other cities were compelled to surrender. Charles and his army (probably hearing of the revolt of the Saxons) prepared to re-enter France with his hostages and rich booty. The kings of Asturias and Navarre, stirred up by Abderrahman, and fearing that Charles would displace them, and put Frankish nobles over their towns and cities, as he had done in the Spanish March, and in other places, resolved to attack the king and his army as they passed through the narrow defiles of the Pyrenæan mountains: hence, as the army was winding its way, in a crooked line, through the narrow gorges which it had to pass, the fleet Gascon mountaineers precipitated themselves from the heights into the valley beneath, where they attacked the rear of the baggage and the troops intended to protect it, utterly destroying the whole. The enemy having pillaged the baggage, then rapidly dispersed, and could not be traced. In this fray of the valley of Roncevaux, the prefect Roland fell, the hero of the Spanish romances. By this disaster much which had been gained was lost: the fortifications of the Franconian Spanish March, between the Pyrenees and the Ebro, were, however, afterwards regained by Louis I., Charles's son, who, in 812, concluded a peace with Hashem I.

d) *Dissolution of the Duchy of Bavaria.* The duchy of Bavaria was a dependent province of the Franconian empire. The dukes, however, possessed their lands by inheritance, and the laws were regulated by the voice of the national assemblies. Like all the vassals of the crown, however, the dukes had to present themselves at the diet, to take the oath of allegiance, and to receive the confirmation of their titles from the king. The line of Agilolfinges was related to the Merovingians; and the reigning duke, Tassilon, was the nephew of Charles. On the death of his mother, before Tassilon had attained his majority, Grifon, the brother of Pepin,

was appointed regent; and while ruling in this capacity, in connection with the Alemanni, rebelled against the king, and attempted to throw off the allegiance. The rebels were subdued, and Grifon taken prisoner. Tassilon afterwards espoused the cause of the Duke of Beneventum (his brother-in-law) against Charles, and sought eagerly every opportunity of renouncing the authority of the Franks. To promote this object he effected an alliance with the Sclavonians which bordered on his territories, and made preparations for attacking either Italy or Gaul. Charles, while in Rome, heard of these seditious proceedings; but to prevent evil consequences, Tassilon sent an embassy to Rome, offering to resign his duchy, which was returned to him as a common fief. Charles communicated an account of these proceedings to his diet assembling at Worms, which decided upon the invasion of Bavaria, and its annexation to the empire. For that purpose three armies were assembled, which advanced upon the duchy; that led by Charles encamped in the very suburbs of Augsburg. Tassilon, alarmed, threw himself upon the clemency of the king, and implored pardon. Charles, however, sent him to be tried by the comitia of the Franks, before which he was accused by his own subjects, and found guilty of high treason. Sentence of death was pronounced, but Charles interceded for him, and he was sent to the convent of Goar, where he ended his days; his accomplices were banished. The duchy of Bavaria, which had been in the house of the Agilolfinges for at least two hundred years, now ceased to exist: its national constitution, however, was preserved.

e) War with the Avars, 791—799.—In order to secure the eastern frontiers of the empire, which, after the subjection of Bavaria, extended to the Ems, Charles invaded the Avaric empire at three points, and advanced victoriously as far as the Raab. Subsequently (in 796) he despatched his son Pepin into Pannonia with an army composed of Lombards and Bavarians. They crossed the Danube, and arrived as far as *Ringus*, the fortified camp of the Avars, where the spoils of the East, devastated by them, were piled. The Avars, being vanquished, these spoils were all seized and carried into France, where they were shared among the grandees and courtiers, after a suitable offering had been sent to the pope. In 804, Charles began to employ, with the Avars and the Huns, the same means of conquest, by conversion to Christianity, as

had so well succeeded with the Saxons. The mission was intrusted to Arnon, archbishop of Salzburg, and a priest named Ingo, who preached the gospel throughout Carinthia and the Lower Pannonia. The Khan was converted, and baptized by the name of Theodore, while hundreds of his subjects also embraced the Christian faith. In the following year (805), they were permitted to occupy the wastes between the Danube and the Saave, and the conquered territory of the Avars was erected into the Avaric or Eastern March, for the cultivation of which colonies of Germans were introduced. During the war Charles made an attempt to unite the Rhine with the Danube, by means of a canal, the vestiges of which still remain.

f) Wars of Charlemagne against the Norman Danes and the Slavonian tribes, carried on by his son Charles.—For the better security of the frontier boundaries in the north and east, it was necessary to extend the limits of the empire as far as the territories of the Normans and Slavonians. This brought them into collision with several Slavonic races, as the Sorabes, the Wilzes, or Weletaibi, the Wendes, etc., who occupied the territory along the whole eastern coast from the Peninsula of Jutland, on the Baltic, to the Istrian peninsula, on the Adriatic Sea. These had, during the reign of Charles, become, in a measure, dependent upon the empire; but the Danes of the north still remained formidable, and assumed a threatening position. In 808, in connection with the Wilzes, they attacked the Obotrites, the ancient allies of the Franks, murdered their duke, and compelled the payment of a tribute; burned Port Reric, and stirred up the Livonians and Smeldingians to revolt. Charles (son of the king) gained considerable reprisals, but could not subdue the hardy Danes: negotiations were entered into, and the fortress of Esselfeldt was built to put a stop to their ravages. In 809, while Charles was preparing to attack the Danes, a fleet of two hundred Norman ships appeared off the coasts of Frisia, which they ravaged, compelling the inhabitants to pay tribute, after having beaten the Frisian counts in three pitched battles. Charles himself resolved to punish this outrage; but receiving intelligence of the murder of the Danish king (Godfrio), and of the death of his son Pepin, he retired to his palace at Achen. In 811, twelve Danish chieftains, and as many

Frankish counts, met upon the Eyder, on the frontiers of the two dominions, and concluded a peace. A peace was also concluded about the same time with the Wilzi, who had, the year before, destroyed Hobhuoki (Hamburg).

In the last year of his life, Charles obtained, by treaty, from the Byzantines, Istria, Liburnia, and Dalmatia, with the exception of some ports on the maritime coast.

Restoration of the Western Roman Empire, 800.

When Pope Leo III. had been grossly insulted, during the progress of a public procession by the republican party, got up by the relatives and partisans of the late Pope Adrian I. (now excluded from power), he set out for Germany to seek Charles, the emperor of the Franks, upon whom, as sovereign and Patricius of Rome* and protector of the church, devolved the punishment of the delinquents. Charles received the pontiff at Paderborn, and promised him his presence and assistance for the settlement of the Roman affairs. On the 24th of November, the emperor made his public entry into Rome, where he was met by the pope, accompanied by all the bishops and clergy, etc. After having held an assembly of all the Frankish and Roman lords, which the pope and his accusers attended, the former exculpated himself by the taking of a solemn oath from the charges laid against him, and his enemies were either banished or imprisoned. In return for this assistance, the pope, during the celebration of the festivities of Christmas in the Vatican, while Charles was on his knees at the foot of the altar, advanced towards the monarch, and placed upon his head a crown of gold, when the pope and the clergy proclaimed aloud, "*Long life and victory to Charles Augustus, crowned by God, great and pacific emperor of the Romans.*" Thus was the Western empire renewed after an interruption of 324 years.

The coronation of Charlemagne at Rome changed none of his rights as a sovereign, either as a temporal head over the people, or as a spiritual head over the church, or in his connection with the pope. The relation between the emperor and the pope was not, however, the

* Soon after the election of Leo III. to the papal chair, he despatched legates to Charlemagne, with the keys of St. Peter, the standard of the city of Rome, and other presents; requesting, at the same time, that certain nobles might be sent to Rome as ambassadors from Charles, to administer the oath of allegiance to the faithful to him.—*Eginhard*.

same as that betwixt a vassal and his lord, but an embodiment of the two extremes of power—temporal and spiritual—or authority. To the pope was left the exercise of the spiritual authority in the church, with the right of crowning the emperor, and administering the oath for the preservation and defence of the church; but, on the other hand, he was obliged to have his election confirmed by the crown. Both powers, however, agreed to act in perfect concert and harmony with each other in any emergency which might arise.

Charlemagne's administration.

The laws (*leges*), written in the Latin tongue, consisted partly of the old constitutions, and had long been in use among the various races of the empire. The newly conquered tribes, —the Saxons, the Friezes, and the Thuringians (Saxons), heretofore governed by hereditary custom—now received written laws; whilst capitularies, or *ordinances of the empire*, were added to those already existing, for the government of the entire empire.

The administration of the empire was entirely founded on its division into districts of *gaus* (hundreds). In each there was a count (nominated by the king), who possessed civil and military authority; he was the presiding judge of the district, to whom belonged the convoking of the *Mallum*, or *placita minora*, the assembly of justice, and the *Heribannium*, the meeting at which war was decided upon. It was only in those frontier provinces, which, touching upon the boundaries of an enemy, were exposed to predatory incursions, that margraves, or superior nobles, were appointed; they ruled over several counties, termed collectively a March, and were also sometimes distinguished by the name of Land-graves, or frontier counts. In order to obtain an accurate knowledge of the condition of these single provinces, and to produce a system of order and unity in the government of them, there were other officers appointed called *Missi Dominici*, imperial deputies or messengers. There were generally two sent to each province, one an ecclesiastic, the other a layman, both of great dignity; they received the revenues of the royal cities, the accounts of which were produced before them; and from their reports the royal capitularies were framed. The assemblies held by these deputies were attended by the bishops, abbots, counts, and vassals, attorneys and the judges, and vidames of the abbeys (spiritual and temporal lords), by all who were invested with offices of state, and privileged to represent the people at the national diets (Field of May).

As the principal province of the Frankish empire was considered to be Austrasia, the peculiar country of the Carlovingians, it was within this province, at Achen, that Charles fixed the lasting seat of his court and government. Here he built his magnificent palace, which he called Lateran, and a splendid church (Capella), hence termed Aix-la-Chapelle. Besides these sumptuous edifices, there were scattered throughout the province at least a hundred villas, or country residences, of the Carlovingians, most of which were in the possession of Charlemagne; Nymeguen and Ingelheim, in the Rhenish palatinate, were those most frequently occupied by him.

The ecclesiastical division of the empire in the ninth century into metropolitan districts, consisted of twenty-one: five for Lombardy, twelve for Western Franconia, and four for Austrasia. These divisions appear to have received the sanction of the assembly, when meeting at Duren (777).

The constitution of war.—Besides the feudatories or *beneficed*, all the proprietors of land were called upon to contribute to the formation of the army. Two hundred and ninety square feet, termed "The Patch," seems to have been the measure of land judged sufficient for the maintenance of a service family; but he who possessed three, and afterwards four and five manses, was compelled to be present in person, to follow the king (by water or on land), armed at his own expense with a lance and shield, or a bow, two slings, and twelve arrows. He was likewise to furnish himself with a stock of provisions sufficient for his support, until he had joined the army, unless under certain conditions, when he was allowed a sufficiency for three months, at the expense of the monarch. Those who possessed but one manse, or even half a manse, were compelled to join others of his equals, and to furnish a soldier from one of their number. The heriban of a province was commanded by the chief of the territory, under the name of lord, afterwards changed to that of duke. The clergy were exempted from personal service, and (since 803) from bearing any expenses of the war, but they were obliged to send their vassals into the field, if qualified. He who, after the general summons, did not appear in his place, was fined sixty golden solidi, and as this generally exceeded his abilities, he was reduced to a state of slavery, until he had discharged it. Desertion from the army was punished by death. To wear arms in the time of peace was forbidden. As the summoning of the heriban took place frequently, and families, even in easy circumstances, were, in consequence, plunged into misery, many freemen changed the character of their property, and made it *feuda oblata*, resigning it to some powerful baron, whom they bound themselves to serve, and from whom they in return received protection. In the course of time, the number of smaller proprietors considerably diminished, and the freeman gradually disappeared.

Commerce.—For promoting commerce, which had during the long wars received a severe check, Charlemagne established many commercial emporiums and repositories, annual fairs and markets. He also improved the construction of the roads and highways, and diminished the dues payable on the admission of foreign produce, specially that on forage (*foderum*). His patronage and love of letters and the sciences are attested by the numerous schools which he founded. He invited to his court

the most celebrated learned men from every country in Europe; hence it became a sort of academy, or literary society, of which he himself was a member. With these he endeavoured to improve his vernacular tongue, and to raise the system of education, both in the youth and the clergy of the realm. In the founding of schools, which he at all times connected with the churches and monasteries, he was guided by the Anglo-Saxon Alcuin, whose school, at Tours, was brought to such a state of excellence that it became the model for all others throughout the empire. His protection of the arts was liberal, especially that of architecture, for which he had imbibed a strong taste while in Italy and Rome. The cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle, the palaces (Pfalzen), Aix-la-Chapelle, Ingelheim, Nymwegen, were monuments spoken of with the highest admiration; they were adorned with numerous paintings, as well as with marble and mosaic work brought from Rome and Ravenna.

The succession of the sons to the power of the father had been a long existing custom among the Franconians. Since the re-establishment of the Western Roman empire, this law seemed inapplicable; but Charlemagne, who alone had the power to break through the long existing custom, did not make any innovation. After the termination of the Saxon war, he divided his empire amongst his three sons, Charles, Pepin, and Ludvig (Louis), of whom only the youngest survived him; the latter was declared, at a diet held at Achen, the successor in the royal and imperial dignities. To Pepin's natural son, Bernard, was given the kingdom of Italy, subject to the supremacy of his uncle. Charlemagne expired on the 28th of January, 814, at the advanced age of seventy-two years; forty-seven of which he had reigned over the Franks, forty-three over the Lombards, and fourteen over the Western empire. He was buried at Mary's, at Achen, which church he had built.

3. Louis the Pious, 814—840.

Louis, as soon as any responsibility could be attached to his actions (as king of Aquitania), had displayed the mildness of his disposition, his love of justice, his beneficence, and, in his zeal for religion, perhaps his weakness. He was, however, more enlightened than any of his predecessors and spent much of his time in reforming the abuses which had crept into the church. His morals were severe and strict, hence his first step was to cleanse the palace of the late monarch of its impurities, by banishing from the court those whose reputation was tainted. In 816, he and his empress, Ermen-garde, were crowned by Stephen iv., at Rheims, and shortly after his coronation he assembled the Comitæ at Achen, where

the king and the nobles occupied themselves for three months with reforming the regulations of the canons and canonesses; these were subsequently changed into laws, and inserted in the capitularies. In the year 817, the king, at the diet held at Achen, broke through the long established custom of patrimonial inheritance, which existed among the Germanic races, and introduced that of the Roman. With the consent of the Franks, he associated his son, Lothaire, with him in the government of the empire, whilst the younger sons were so restricted in their rights as to be, in comparison with their elder brother, only mere governors of provinces. This arrangement, however, though it served in some degree to consolidate the empire, tended, through the contest which arose for supremacy, to sacrifice the sovereign authority to the feudal laws and the papal power, and became a fundamental law. It was better, however, than the old German law of division, which was found to be detrimental to the interests of the nation, whilst the Roman was in perfect accordance with absolute dominion.

In this new arrangement, Pepin received Aquitania, and Louis, Bavaria. Bernhard, who had received Italia, at the instigation of Ermengarde was cruelly deprived of his sight, for conspiring against his uncle Louis, and died three days after, when Lothaire was proclaimed king of Italy.

On the death of Ermengarde, in 819, Louis married Judith, the beautiful daughter of Count Guelph, of Bavaria, by whom he had Charles the Bald, and upon whom he settled the provinces of Allemânia, Alsatia, and a portion of Burgundy, which was in direct opposition to that division which had been made and sworn to at the diet of Nymwegen. This excited the indignation of the two younger sons of Louis, who rebelled against their father. The elder son, Lothaire, had sworn to defend young Charles, and to maintain him in the portion assigned to him. The rebellion was first commenced by Pepin, king of Aquitania, who was afterwards joined by Louis, the king of Bavaria. The emperor and the empress were seized, but, on the arrival of Lothaire from Italy, an arrangement was entered into, and each retired to his respective kingdom. In 832, the three sons of Louis once more armed against their father, who was ruled solely by the will of the Empress Judith. The armies met, not to fight, but to negotiate, at Rothfeld, near Colmar, in Alsatia.

The incapacity of Louis at length became so evident, that his nobles and his battalions nearly all deserted him. So universal was the defection that the place received the name of Lugenfeld (lying field). The emperor was treated with every respect by his sons, but his queen, Judith, was sent to the fortress of Tortona, in Italy. The former division of the monarchy, in 817, was confirmed, and the princes separated; Pepin returned to Aquitania, and Louis to Bavaria; while Lothaire ruled as emperor and guardian of his father, whom he placed in a convent at Soissons. The bishops, who had assisted in the dethronement of Louis, compelled the aged monarch to do public penance, and thus rendered him incapable of re-ascending the throne. After this ceremony, Lothaire conveyed his father to Achen. At length the conduct of Lothaire became so offensive, that the younger sons of Louis took measures to procure his liberty, in which they were seconded by many of the nobility. On warlike preparations being made, in order to compel the surrender of the monarch's person, he suddenly fled from Paris to Vienne, in Dauphiny; when Louis, being left at liberty, received at St. Denis, through the bishops in his interest, the reconciliation of the church. Being joined by his two sons, Pepin and Louis, he endeavoured to effect a reconciliation also with Lothaire, who, however, rejected all the overtures of his father, and had recourse to arms, which were at first successful (at Châlons). Afterwards (at Orleans) the two opposing armies met again, when, at the close of four days' negotiation, the soldiers of Lothaire deserted in considerable numbers, and joined the ranks of the emperor. At length, Lothaire threw himself at the feet of the aged monarch, who freely forgave him. The intrigues of the Empress Judith, who had been rescued from the fortress of Tortona, continued, however, to distract the peace of the empire, and the closing days of Louis were occupied in fighting against his son and grandson. He died, 20th June, 840, at the palace of Ingelheim, on an island of the Rhine, aged sixty-two, having reigned twenty-seven years.

4. The successors of Louis the Meek (Pious), until the final division of the Empire.

Lothaire, on the death of his father, regardless of the latter division of the empire, which had been effected through the intrigues of the Empress Judith, laid claim to the imperial

dignity and to the supremacy over the whole empire. This brought against him his two brothers, who defeated him in the great battle of Fontenay, in Burgundy, in which 40,000 fell (841). From this period, the two people (Germans and Franks), whom Charlemagne had united, were filled with mutual hatred. At the death of Louis, the frontier, which divided both the people and their languages, was the same; the Latin, or the Romance, as it now began to be called, was spoken in the south, whilst the Teutonic was the language of those who resided beyond the province of Aquitania. Being thus consolidated, the Roman population had an opportunity of resisting the Germans, their masters, whom they held to be barbarians, while both nations profited by the occasion. From this time, small independent states were formed, the lords of which only gave the monarch that support which tended to bring about a just and systematic division of the empire. This prevented the two younger brothers from taking those advantages of the victory gained over Lothaire, by which he would have been ruined. The people were tired of the war, and the nobles and bishops demanded that all the provinces should be submitted to a regular examination. Commissioners were appointed, upon whose report the final division of the empire was made. The three kings were now compelled to agree to this arrangement, and accordingly signed the celebrated treaty of Verdun (843).

a) Lothaire received—1. *Franconian Italy*: Upper Italy, from the maritime Alps, Tuscia, the former Exarchate (Ravenna), the Pentapolis, with the duchies of Rome and Spoleto. 2. *Central Franconia*: The territory lying between the two kingdoms of his brothers, extending north to the North Sea; south, to the Mediterranean; and bounded on the west by the Scheldt, the Meuse, the Saone, and the Rhone; east, it was bounded by the Rhine and the Alps. Besides these there were—1, on the eastern side of the Rhine, in Friesland, the tract lying upon the left bank of the Rhine between the Meuse and the Ems, including a portion of Riparian Franconia; and 2, on the western side of the Rhone, three counties which belonged to it, while Mayence, Worms, and Speyer (Spires), on the left bank of the Rhine, were excepted, agreeably to the ecclesiastical division of Germany by Boniface. The southern portion of Lothaire's empire, as far as the sources of the Meuse and the

Moselle, was called Burgundia; the northern (after Lothaire), Lotharingia, now called Lorraine.

b) Louis the German had—1. *Eastern Franconia*: All the German territories east of the Rhine (excepting Friezland and the Ripuarian lands belonging to Lothaire), and those also upon the western banks of the Rhine, and the districts of Mayence, Worms, and Speyer (Spires). 2. The *Sclavonian territory* on the Elbe and Saale, including the Bohemian forest, which latter, however, stood in very doubtful dependence upon the empire.

c) Charles the Bald.—*West Franconia*: All the territory of the Franks, situated west of Lothaire's empire, as far as the Pyrenees, and on the other side of Aquitania, the *Spanish March*.

Thus Lothaire, in addition to the title of emperor, retained also the ecclesiastical and political capitals of the kingdom (Rome and Achen), which formed a sort of artificial union between the original seat of the Franks and Italy, in which there was not anything firm or solid, there was nothing distinctive or national. Louis and Charles, on the other hand, ruled over kingdoms more compact, and people who were bound together by a common origin, whose interests were identical with the soil upon which they lived. Hence they soon received names which were derived from the people themselves. Lothaire's had become the kingdom of the Germans, and that of Charles (the Bald) the kingdom of the Franks (French).

These kingdoms did not long remain in a quiet state. The three sovereigns were continually at war, endeavouring to crush each other. Meanwhile the independence of the nobles increased, they submitted to no law, and the power of the sovereign was so diminished, that armies could scarcely be raised. Profiting by the intestine commotions between the several princes, and the opposition of their powerful vassals, the Scandinavian pirates (Danes and Normans, or Northmen) invaded the whole line of the western coast, from Frisia to Bordeaux, in Aquitania, which they pillaged and destroyed. Encouraged probably by the kings of Lotharingia and Aquitania, who sought the destruction of each others' territories, the Normans ascended the Rhine, the Loire, and the Garonne, in their light vessels, and plundered and destroyed the cities of Paris, Rouen, Tours, Amboise, etc. They also made a descent upon the northern frontiers, with 600 armed vessels;

and, entering the Elbe, plundered and razed the city of Hamanburg (Hamburg). While the Northmen were devastating the Franconian empire, the Arabs and Moors were invading the kingdom of Italy. Rome was sacked, and the Vatican, with the church of St. Peter, stripped of their valuables. Louis, the son of Lothaire, pursued the invader, but was defeated near Gaeta, and compelled to make his escape. In Eastern Franconia, the Sclavonians made continual incursions into the German territories, and the Danes again ravaged Frisia. At length, the three brothers were driven, by the distressed condition of the empire, to make peace with each other, that they might combine against the common enemy. The king of the Danes was threatened with war, but he, knowing the weakness of the Franconian princes, ravaged the provinces still more. Bordeaux was again plundered, and Marseille was sacked and partially destroyed by the Greeks and Normans, the latter of whom pillaged Angers and burned Perigueux. Such was the state of the empire during this period, that there was not a city or town within the three Franconian kingdoms secure from the attacks of brigands and pirates.

In 855, a civil war again arose between the princes, and was continued until Lothaire vacated the throne. Feeling his end approaching, and wishing to share in the indulgences which the church granted to religious orders, he took the habit of a monk, shortly after which he died, in his sixtieth year (855). The kingdom of Lothaire was divided between his three sons, who, not contented with their respective portions, engaged in a war, in which they were pursued by their avaricious uncles, who endeavoured to seize their inheritance. The youngest of the three sons of Lothaire (Charles) dying (863), his kingdom was divided between his two surviving brothers. Louis II. received the imperial title with Italy, and Lothaire III. the country between the Scheldt and the Saone, the Meuse and the Rhine, called from him Lotharii Regnum, afterwards corrupted into Lotharingia, Lorraine. Lothaire dying without issue, his kingdom, which belonged of right to the emperor, was seized by Charles the Bald. It was subsequently, however, by the treaty of Mersen, divided between the two; Charles receiving Dauphiny, Lyonnais, and the greater part of Burgundy, while to Louis, king of Italy, were assigned the Germanic provinces in Alsatia, Lorraine, and on the Rhine. By this division, so suitable to the claims of the people, a union of language and

racés was effected. The French and German races were not mixed in the same province as before. The principalities were now wholly either of a French or Germanic character. By this settlement, Germany gained an accession of two archbishoprics (Cologne and Treves), and three bishoprics (Utrecht, Strasbourg, and Basel). The frontiers were also confined by their proper natural or physical boundaries, and the Rhine became again a German river, from its source to its delta.

On the death of the Emperor Louis II. of Italy the Lotharingian line ceased, and the Italian kingdom belonged by right to Louis the German, as the elder of the Carlovingian race, but Charles the Bald supplanted his brother, and by rapid marches into Italy (where almost without drawing a sword the army of Louis was dispersed), he obtained the consent of the pope, and was crowned emperor of the West. He had, however, to make large concessions to the church, and to prepare for the attack of Louis, who had devastated the Franconian provinces, and was hastening towards Italy. Before any serious conflict took place, the emperor died (876), and his kingdom of Germany was divided between his three sons, Carloman of Bavaria, Louis of Saxony, and Charles the Fat. Louis, however, soon died (879), and the whole kingdom devolved upon the younger brother, Charles III., who received the imperial dignity. On the death of the elder sons of Louis the Stammerer (second son and successor to Charles the Bald), and during the minority of Louis the Simple, he became king of France, and the whole Franconian monarchy was thus once more united under one head, with the exception of Burgundy, or Provence, which was held as a fief by Boson, who had married the daughter of Louis II. (879).

d) Charles the Fat, imprudent and cowardly, proved naturally unfit to resist the invasions of the Normans, who ravaged the whole of the Franconian empire almost without opposition. Cologne, Bonn, and Triers (Treves), and all the large towns of Lotharingia, were burned and destroyed. Frisia was given up to them, and Charles by a stratagem procured the assassination of their kings and nobles, which served only to increase their fury, for, in 885, the Norman vessels ascended the Seine, and destroyed the great city of Rouen, in sight of an immense army, which took to flight immediately on seeing their enemy on the bank of the river. Soon after, they appeared before Paris, when the Parisians supplicated the

assistance of the Duke of Saxony, who, on arriving, ravaged the territory, but did not dare to attack the Normans, who enjoyed the pleasures of the chase in France and Lower Burgundy, as if they were living in peace in their own country. After many earnest appeals for assistance, Charles advanced with his army to the succour of the Parisians, but to negotiate, not to fight. The Normans received a large sum of money to quit the environs of Paris, and to return to Germany. This shameful conduct so lowered him in the estimation of the empire, that he was treated with the greatest scorn, and looked upon by the nobles with contempt. At length, the monarch was seized with illness, and became so imbecile, that the grandees, at a diet held at the castle of Tribur, on the Rhine, felt it to be their duty to depose him (887). He soon after died in a state of indigence, at the castle of Indinga, in Allemania (Suabia), 888. At the same diet at which Charles was deposed, Arnulph, or Arnolphus, grandson of Louis the German, was elected to the German throne, and took the imperial dignity. Charles the Stammerer was set aside on account of his youth. In Francia, Count Otho of Paris, the Duke of Francia, and the brave defender of the imperial city when attacked by the Normans, usurped the royal dignity; and thus a second kingdom was formed by the side of the kingdom of Lower Burgundy, or Provence. A fourth sovereignty arose—namely, that of Upper or Transjuran Burgundy, founded by Count Rudolf; it extended from the Jura, in Sabaudia (Savoy), and Sweitz (Switzerland), as far as the Aar. Italy was disputed between Guido and Berenger, the margraves of Spoleto and Friuli, who both caused themselves to be proclaimed kings. The great Carolingian empire was therefore now divided into five separate kingdoms; not, however, entirely independent, for the newly formed states were compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of Arnulph.

Internal or Domestic History.—Under the weak and impotent successors of Charlemagne, the power of the aristocracy, which that monarch had considerably humbled, again arose, and, in spite of the feeble attempts of the sovereigns to prevent it, became dominant. This the occurrence of repeated divisions of the various kingdoms tended to promote; and Charles the Bald, to insure the assistance of the powerful vassals of the crown, granted them two important privileges, which proved highly detrimental to the interests of royalty—namely, the right of electing the sovereign, and the hereditary descent of the great fiefs. In less than eleven years after the death of Charles, the

great barons put their privilege of the right of election into force against his descendants.

In the frontier provinces, as Saxonia and Bavaria, the dignity of dux or duke, abolished by Charlemagne, was renewed, and the margraves now united the military with the civil authority, and took the command of the armies on the frontiers, and led them forth to battle. Their power and title at length became hereditary in their families. The ducal dignity seems to have originated first in the provinces of Franconia, Allemania, and Lotharingia.

§ 21.

THE EASTERN FRANCONIAN EMPIRE UNDER THE LAST TWO CARLOVINGIANS, 887—911.

1) Arnulph (887—899), whom the Germans elected, at Ghent, as emperor, had distinguished himself against the Slavonians, and proved a more formidable foe to the Normans than any of his predecessors, utterly defeating them in Lotharingia, when thousands were drowned in endeavouring to escape, and two of their sovereigns perished on the field (891). Subsequently, however, Arnulph was himself vanquished, and his army scattered, by another body of Normans, who surprised him in the Vermandois. Soon after, in consequence of the shortness of provisions, the Normans for a while left France, and threw themselves upon the eastern coast of England. The war against the King of Moravia and Bavaria proved more hazardous and destructive to Arnulph than that of the Normans. To protect the empire from the incursions of the barbarians, and, by the union of Bohemia with Moravia, to form a rampart against their invasions, he had conferred that duchy upon the Slavonic king of Moravia. This proceeding, however, only served to inflate with pride, and increase the importance of the pagan sovereign. Zventibold soon refused to carry out any of the stipulated conditions with Arnulph, and actually invaded the German dominions. Arnulph, too weak to compel his withdrawal (according to some), invited the aid of the fierce and warlike Huns, who had come down from the banks of the Wolga, and settled in the plains of Transylvania and Moldavia. Zventibold was speedily compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of Arnulph. Moravia was dismembered; Silesia,

and the territory formerly occupied by the Bulgares (part of modern Austria), were detached from it, and added to a portion of the Thracian territory, thus forming the kingdom of Hungary. Arnulph made two campaigns into Italy: the first was undertaken in favour of Berenger, the king of Italy, whose cause was espoused by Arnulph against Guido, the duke of Spoleto, who also contended for the sovereignty. Arnulph, to the surprise of both, seized the kingdom for himself. During his second campaign, he procured from the pope (Formosus) the imperial crown, and was acknowledged emperor. He also made a fruitless attempt to secure the crown of Lombardy for one of his sons. On the death of Arnulph (899), the great vassals of the empire endeavoured to divide the kingdom into a number of petty independent states, and thus to augment their own power and greatness. To this, however, the ecclesiastical nobility were opposed, as, by such an arrangement, they would be placed in a condition inferior to the temporal nobility. A union was therefore effected, and Louis, the son of Arnulph, now only seven years of age, was chosen, under the guardianship of two nobles, one belonging to each order.

2) Louis the Child (900—911). Under the regency of the Archbishop of Mentz and the Duke of Saxony the power of the nobles became consolidated, and rose superior to that of the monarch. The anarchy and confusion which ensued (chiefly through the quarrels between the Count of Bamberg and the Bishop of Würzburg) proved more detrimental to the empire than the foreign invasions of the savage Hungarians, who, after having completed the subjugation of the Moravian kingdom (the bulwark of Germany towards the east), invaded Carinthia, wasted Bavaria, and even penetrated (through Bohemia) into Saxony, where they utterly vanquished the army of Louis, on the Ems (907). The Hungarians next plundered all the provinces, until they arrived in Allemania (Suabia) (910), which they overran, as likewise Franconia (910), even to the shores of the Baltic, where they laid the city of Bremen in ashes. On their return to their own country, they themselves became the prey of the restless pagan Poles, who penetrated Moravia, even to the Rhine. The royal domains received during this reign a vast accession in the confiscated lands of the Count of Bamberg, who not only refused to attend the diet, when summoned to appear, but openly defied the monarch himself. Louis iv. died, 911.

Pepin of Heristal, † 714.

Charles Martel, † 741.

Carloman, † 747. Pepin the Short, † 768.

Grifo, † 753.

Carloman, † 771.

1) Charlemagne, † 814.

Charles, † 811. Pepin, † 810.

Bernard, K. of Italy, † 817. 3) Lothaire I., † 855.

2) Louis the Pious, † 840.

Louis the German, † 876. 5) Charles the Bald, † 877.

Gisela, with Eberhard of Friuli.

4) Louis II., † 875. Lothaire II., † 869.

Carloman, † 880. Louis, † 882.

6) Charles the Fat, † 888. 8) Louis the Stammerer, † 879.

Berenger I. with Werner. Otho the Great.

Ermengarde, consort of Boson, K. of Burgundia. Louis of Provincia.

7) Arnulph of Carinthia, † 899.

Louis III., † 882. Carloman, † 884. Charles the Simple, † 929.

Conrad, K. of Franconia. Louis IV. Giesela, with Adelbert of Ivrea.

Louis the Child, † 911.

Lothaire. Charles. Louis V., le Fancant (Do-Nothing), † 987.

Berenger II., † with Willa. Adelbert.

§ 22.

EMPIRE OF THE EASTERN FRANKS UNDER CONRAD I.,
OF FRANCONIA, 911—918.

At the period of the extinction of the Carlovingian race in Germany, on the death of Louis, the authority of the dukes, within their respective territories, was perfectly sovereign. There were the nations of the Franks, the Saxons, the Bavarians, the Allemanians (Suabians), and the Lotharingians, each of which probably had its duke. From one or other of these powerful nobles the sovereign was to be elected, and as the Franks were first in dignity, and their ancestors had founded the empire, the place of election was fixed within their territories, the Archbishop of Mentz regulating the proceedings. At the present election there were two who stood forth more prominently than the rest—namely, Otho, the illustrious, but aged, duke of the Saxons, and Conrad, count (duke?) of the Saxons, the grandson of Arnulph, and nephew of Louis. The suffrages fell on Otho, but he generously declined the dignity, and voted for Conrad, who proved worthy of the elevation to which he was raised. In less than a year after his election, Otho of Saxony died, and Conrad endeavoured to reduce the possessions of that vast duchy. This proceeding led to a war, and Henry, the son and successor of Otho, defied the imperial forces, and retained his fiefs. Against the representatives (intendants) of the duchy of Allemania, Bavaria, Lotharingia, Conrad was more successful. The activity, energy, and bravery of the king compelled to a great extent the submission of the German feudatories (princes); but no sooner had he withdrawn with his army from their territories than they revolted, and threw off the allegiance again. During these internal dissensions, the Huns again invaded the kingdom, and overran Allemania (Suabia), Lotharingia, and Saxony. Conrad had several times opposed the savage Hungarians with success, but at length was mortally wounded in attempting to drive them out of Bavaria (919), where they had leagued with Arnulph against him. Before his death, he entreated his friends and relatives to waive their own personal interests, and elect the powerful Duke Henry of Saxony, who received from Eberhard, the brother and successor (to the dukedom) of Conrad, the ensigns of

royalty. The election of Henry was sanctioned by the Franks and the Saxons.

§ 23.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE UNDER THE KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF SAXONY, 919—1024.

1. Henry I. (the Fowler), 919—936.

The efforts of Henry were first directed to the more permanent establishment of the royal power, by effecting a union with the Germanic princes. For this purpose he demanded a meeting with Arnulph, who, after much opposition, consented to hold the powerful duchy of Bavaria as a fief. For this he was rewarded with the government of Nordgau and Eastern Franconia. The next object to attain was the restoration of Lotharingia, and the security of the northern and eastern frontiers of the empire against the incursions of their formidable enemies, the Normans, Slavonians, and Hungarians.

By the subjection of the dukes of Allemania and Bavaria, all the Germans on the eastern bank of the Rhine were consolidated into one common empire or elective monarchy; and by the grant of certain privileges to Giselbert, duke of Lotharingia, that province was also added, and constituted a fifth duchy of the empire, with which it remained incorporated until the eighteenth century. In 926, the Hungarians again invaded the empire, and ravaged a portion of Saxony, when one of their mightiest chiefs fell into the hands of Henry, the Saxon duke. A truce of nine years was made the condition of his liberation, and probably the payment of the same amount of tribute as the predecessors of Henry had formerly paid to them as the price of their forbearance.

The interval was employed in improving the military discipline of the people, the erection of fortresses, or castles, and fortified towns, granting extensive privileges to the inhabitants, for whose sustenance immense magazines were founded, in which was preserved one-third of the produce of the rural population around them. These were first erected in the territory immediately subject to Henry, but afterwards considerably extended. Among the first in Saxony and Thuringia were Merseburg, Quedlingberg, Goslar, etc. Henry also partially restored the heerban by the establishment of a sort of standing army, or militia, composed of the eldest sons of fami-

lies, who were supported out of the patrimonial inheritance. A light cavalry was also instituted for resisting the aggressions of the mounted Hungarians. These troops he led against the Slavish tribes, who had formerly been tributary to the empire, but had since joined the Hunnish confederation. The Havelians, or the Havel, were first subdued; and their capital, Braniber (Brandenberg), being taken, the Altemark was founded (margraviate of Misnia). Henry next penetrated into Bohemia, where he subdued the Wendes, and compelled their duke to revive the homage which had ceased since the days of Arnulph. The German frontiers were extended to the countries watered by the Oder; further victories led to the foundation of the Saxon March.

At the expiration of the nine years' truce, elevated by his successes against the Slaves, Henry determined to resist the payment of the Hunnish tribute; in revenge for which they penetrated into the very heart of the empire, through the territories of the Wendes, and devastated the frontiers of Saxony and of Thuringia. They were, at length, however, signally defeated at Merseburg, and afterwards pursued to the very confines of their own land, where they were henceforth compelled to remain. Austria, which had been in their hands since the time of the Carlovingian princes, was re-erected into a march (the margraviate of Austria), to serve as a protection against their future invasions. Henry, having subdued the Huns, proceeded to chastise the Norman Danes, who occupied the present duchy of Schleswig and the country on the Eyder. The Danish king was defeated, and compelled to submit to the evacuation of the territories which had constituted the old Carlovingian mark (Danawirk) which was between the Eyder and the Schlee, now erected into the margraviate of Schleswig.

All the enemies of the empire being subdued, Henry seems to have contemplated the reunion of Italy with Germany, and thus of re-establishing the empire, and receiving the imperial diadem. His death, however, which occurred in 936, prevented its accomplishment.

2. Otho I. (the Great), 936—973.

Otho was the eldest son of Henry the Fowler, and had been nominated by his father as his successor. This nomination, however, unless confirmed by a majority of the five elective princes of the empire, assembled for the purpose, was by no means conclusive. On this occasion, the dignity, which had

before been only partially elective, was made so in the strictest possible sense, and was exercised with great pomp and solemnity. Formerly the place of election had been Mentz; it was now, however, changed to Achen, the former residence of Charlemagne. The three sons of Henry were competitors for the sovereignty; but the choice fell upon Otho, who was crowned, after much contention for the privilege, by the Archbishop of Mentz.

Otho was scarcely crowned, when the Danes, Slavonians, and Hungarians rose in rebellion, and endeavoured to regain their lost territories; but the most formidable difficulties of the emperor arose from the turbulence of his great feudatories, who endeavoured to render their duchies hereditary, that they might not any longer depend on the installation of the sovereign. Some of the principal rebels met with a premature death. To strengthen his interests he continued to draw the fiefs of Suabia, Bavaria, and Lotharingia into the possession of his own family; Saxony and Thuringia he retained for himself, and did not appoint a successor to his own duchy (which no sovereign on his election was allowed to maintain, neither to add to) until his second Italian campaign. After Otho had triumphed over his rebellious nobles, he turned his arms against his foreign enemies (the Danes and Slavonians), in the subjection of whom he was equally successful, and for whose conversion he made ample provision, by the foundation of the bishoprics of Havelberg and Brandenburg, Schleswig and Holstein.

Foreign Wars of Otho I.

1) The Danes, who had invaded the margraviate of Schleswig (restored by Henry I.), and had killed the margrave and dispersed the Saxon colonists, were repulsed by Otho, who advanced into Jutland, and compelled its king to acknowledge the German supremacy. For their conversion to Christianity, the bishoprics of Schleswig, Ribe, and Aarhus were established, and placed under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Hamanberg (Hamburg).

2) First Italian Campaign (951).—Italy, since the death of Arnulph, had been separated from the empire, the sovereignty of which was contended for by the dukes of Friuli, Spoleto, and Upper Burgundy (comp. § 25). On the sudden death of Lothaire, probably by the instrumentality of Berenger of Ivrea, he seized the dignity, and, to unite all

parties, endeavoured to compel the queen to marry his son Adelbert. In her distress she applied to the Emperor Otho for assistance, which was promptly afforded. Otho advanced into Italy with an army (951), seized Pavia, and several other cities. Having released the queen from her imprisonment, and driven Berenger out of Italy and Lombardy, he married his *protégée*, the queen, and caused himself to be crowned king of Italy. In the following year, after considerable negotiation, Berenger obtained from Otho the kingdom of Italy, as a vassalage of the German empire, with the exception of the marches of Aquileia, Verona, etc., which were bestowed upon the Duke of Bavaria.

The reunion of Italy and Germany was fatal for the latter, in consequence of the wars which afterwards took place, by which the flower of the German soldiery was cut off either by famine or pestilential fevers. It also brought the emperors into frequent collisions with the popes, which were too often settled by an appeal to arms; while the climate destroyed the successions of many noble German families, and led also to the premature death of some of the emperors. This gave rise to regencies (Otho II. and Henry VI.), and tended to the extinction of the reigning dynasty (Otho III. and Lothaire).

3) Hungarian War.—In 955, the Hungarians advanced into the provinces of Bavaria and Allemania (Suabia), with one of the largest armies which ever invaded the German states, consisting of 100,000 men. Otho met them near Augsburg, in the Lechfeld (plain of the Lech), the scene of their former triumph, and totally vanquished them. By this conquest, France, Germany, and Italy, were ever after preserved from their formidable incursions. In the same year, a decisive blow was struck against the Slavonians, the principal races of whom had combined to throw off their allegiance to the empire. Otho also subdued the Slavish barbarians to the east as far as the Vistula (965); and the first duke of the Poles, Mieczislaus I., nominally acknowledged the supremacy of the emperor, who founded for their instruction in the doctrines of Christianity the first Polish bishopric, that of Posen.

4) Otho's Roman Expedition (961—965).—In consequence of the complaints which pope John XII., and some of the Italian nobility, had made to Otho against Berenger and his son, he proceeded with his army into Italy. Berenger, too feeble to offer resistance in the open field, shut himself up in the fortresses of the great cities. Pavia and Milan, however,

fell into the emperor's hands, when he caused himself to be crowned king of Italy, and pursued his journey until he made his public entry into Rome itself, where the pope gave him a brilliant reception, and invested him with the imperial dignity, which had lain dormant for upwards of thirty-eight years. This revived title of Emperor of the West continued to be borne by the German sovereigns until the dissolution of the empire in 1806.

In the following year (962), Otho besieged St. Leon, where Berenger and his queen had taken refuge. While carrying on the siege, Otho, informed of the immoralities of the pope, remonstrated with the pontiff, who broke off his union with the emperor, and joined Adelbert, the son of Berenger, against him. Otho, however, proved too powerful, and marched towards Rome with his victorious army, when the pope, with Adelbert, fled from the city. Otho, having assembled the clergy and the people, exacted from them an oath that, henceforward, they would elect no pope without his consent, and that of the emperors, his successors. Pope John XII. was then deposed, and Leo VIII. elected in his stead. The former, with the rebellious vassal Berenger, long endeavoured to regain the papal seat; but Leo was maintained in it in spite of all his opponents. In 964, Berenger, after the fall of St. Leon, fell into the hands of the conqueror, who exiled him to Bamberg, where he died; Adelbert took refuge in the court of Constantinople.

5) His Third Italian Campaign (966—972) was undertaken for the purpose of confirming pope John XIII. in the papacy, against the efforts of the deposed pope John XII. and his party, which was yet very powerful. John was assassinated by an Italian, whose wife he had dishonoured; while a famine breaking out at the same time, compelled an unconditional surrender on the part of the Romans. John XIII., who had returned to Italy, was reinstated by Otho, who also procured the coronation of his son Otho (II.) as his imperial successor. The sovereignty of the Western Empire being thus secured to his family, Otho sought to strengthen his influence by an alliance with the Greek emperor, in connection with whom he made war against the Saracens of Sicily, the last and most formidable enemies of Christendom. But the designs of Otho on Lower Italy severed the connection between them, and it was not until after a war of two

years in Apuleia and Calabria, that a treaty of peace, the terms of which are not known, was entered into, and the son of Otho received the hand of Theophania, daughter of Nicephorus, in marriage, who also made over to the emperor the imperial rights of the whole of Lower Italy, with the exception of Benevento and Capua. From this period the kings elected by the Germans became kings of Italy and emperors, and received the triple crown of Germany, Italy, and Rome. The title of emperor, however, was not assumed until after a formal coronation had taken place at Rome, when the pope placed the imperial diadem on the head of the German sovereign.

Otho I. died 973, bequeathing his extensive empire to his son. It consisted of Germany; Lotharingia, which was divided into two duchies, namely, the Upper and Lower Lorraines; Upper and Central Italy, which was immediately dependent upon the empire; the great duchy of Bohemia; Poland (nominally dependent); and the Lombardian duchies of Lower Italy, as well as the princes of the Slavonians on the shores of the Baltic.

3. Otho II., 973—983.

War with France.—The reign of Otho was troublesome; his first campaign was directed against the Danes and the Slavonian tribes of Bohemia and Poland. After many sanguinary engagements, he succeeded in securing the peace of the northern and eastern boundaries of the empire. Otho next subdued his vassal cousin Henry, duke of Bavaria, whom he imprisoned, and whose fief he conferred on his kinsman, the Duke of Suabia. In 978, Lothaire IV., the cousin of Otho, surprised him in the midst of peace, at his palace of Achen, and nearly made him a prisoner. He, however, with the Empress Theophania, escaped to Cologne, and Lothaire, after ravaging the surrounding country for three days, retired. Otho determined to revenge the insult, and assembling an army of 60,000 men, he devastated the dioceses of Rheims, Laon, and Soissons, and afterwards proceeded to Paris, without encountering any opposition. On his return to Germany, he was attacked by Lothaire at the passage of the Aisne, where a portion of his army was cut off ere it could ford the river. In the following year, Lothaire met Otho with considerable presents, and signed with him a treaty of peace, which regulated the boundaries of the two dominions, and settled their respective rights over Lorraine.

War in Lower Italy.—The provinces on the western frontiers being secured, and the peace of the empire having for some time been settled, Otho, in 980, entered Italy for the purpose of strengthening his hereditary possessions in Calabria, and of extending his dominion over the whole of the Peninsula. He invaded Apulia, took possession of Bari and Tarentum, and pursued his conquests in Calabria. The Greeks in their distress applied to the Saracens (Arabians) for assistance, which they obtained. By the victory of Squillace (Basantello), the emperor lost nearly all that he had gained, and narrowly escaped with his life.

On his return to Lombardy, his infant son (Otho III.) was elected to the imperial dignity, and afterwards conveyed to Achen, that he might receive the crown of Germany. The rejoicings which took place, however, were summarily terminated by the intelligence that all the Sclavonian tribes had revolted, and returned to their pagan superstitions. At the same time, Saxony was overrun by the Danes, who, however, were reduced by the German princes. Otho sunk under the weight of these accumulated evils, and died at Rome, while fresh preparations were being made for another campaign against the Greeks and Saracens.

4. Otho III., 983—1002.

Otho III. was but three years old when his father died, and the empire was in a state of disorder. As soon as the death of Otho II. was known, the dethroned Duke of Bavaria (Henry II., surnamed the Quarrelsome) broke from his confinement; and having seized the prince, who was under the guardianship of the Empress Theophania, demanded the regency for himself. Being his cousin, Henry received the support of the Dukes of Bohemia and Poland, whom he persuaded to proclaim him king. He was afterwards joined by Lothaire, the king of France, and the Sclavonians: hence a complete dissolution of the empire seemed about to take place. At length a diet was held at Rohrheim, to settle the guardianship, when the defenders of the house of Saxony compelled Henry to restore the young prince to his mother, who was appointed regent; and in the event of her death, the regency was to pass, first into the hands of his grandmother, Adelheid (Adelaide), and then to his aunt, the Abbess Matilda. Henry recovering the duchy of Bavaria (without Carinthia), now became one of his cousin's most zealous defenders; while Lothaire, to preserve peace, surrendered Verden, which he had seized, and set Godfrid, the count of that city, whom he had imprisoned, at liberty.

The internal peace of the empire being restored, and the

wars against the Slavonians (which had been renewed every year) being determined by a great victory over the Obohites, when a treaty of peace was signed, Otho passed over into Italy, and received the imperial crown of Rome. Soon after, the Romans, headed by the Consul Crescentius, revolted, and endeavoured to throw off the German supremacy, which led Otho back to Rome, when the consul was defeated and hanged. Tranquillity was now soon restored. In 1000, he made a pilgrimage to the shrine of the Bishop Adelbert of Gnesna, who had suffered as a martyr on the shores of the Baltic, whilst preaching the gospel to the pagans of Pomerania. On this occasion, the chapter of Gnesna was erected into an archbishopric, and the duchy of Poland into a kingdom.

The dislike of Otho for the manners and customs of his native country (Germany) led him a third time into Italy, where it was probably his intention to transfer the capital of the empire from Achen to Rome. The Romans, however, who detested the German yoke, again revolted, and besieged the emperor in his palace, whence he narrowly escaped with his life. He died while preparing to revenge himself upon the rebels, in 1002, leaving the crown to Henry, the third duke of Bavaria, son of Henry the Quarrelsome, and grandson of the Emperor Henry I. of Germany.

5. Henry II. (the Saint), 1002—1024.

Henry, on his accession to the imperial dignity, began to make the tour of the empire, for the purpose of receiving the homage of his vassals, but had scarcely commenced his journey when he received intelligence that Harduin, the margrave of Ivrea, had been elected king of Italy, on the death of Otho. At the same period Boleslaus of Poland overran Bohemia, the duke of which struggled to grasp the province of Silesia, and to throw off the Polish vassalage, which Boleslaus, the Bohemian duke, had acknowledged. The Bohemians and Germans were repulsed, and the king and his son were made prisoners. Henry was engaged in Italy, during this time, against the usurper (Harduin of Ivrea), whom he defeated. On his return, he received the iron crown of Lombardy; and during his stay, the great city of Pavia was laid in ashes, in consequence of a quarrel between the Pavians and his troops. Henry, and the German princes who had not joined the Polish king, alarmed at the progress of his arms, formed a confederacy to drive him out of Bohemia, and restore the lawful king. This, after some years,

was effected; and Boleslaus was compelled to restore Bohemia, but allowed to retain Silesia as a fief of the empire. The boundaries of the empire on the east were now, for a time, secured. Italy being in a state of anarchy, in consequence of the revolt of Harduin, Benedict induced Henry, who had determined never again to visit Italy, to come to his aid. On his arrival, having settled the affairs of the country, and driven Harduin to take refuge in a monastery, the pope conferred upon him and his empress, Cunegund, the imperial crown. After the death of Harduin, no native prince ever attempted to contend with the German kings for the freedom of Italy. The third campaign of Henry, who first entered Italy on a pilgrimage to the cavern on Mount Gorgona, was carried on in Southern Italy, against the Saracens and Greeks. Having received considerable assistance from the Normans of Apulia, he gained the victory of Basantello, after which he assigned them more extensive territories and greater immunities, as a reward or payment.

§ 24.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE UNDER THE FRANCONIAN
EMPERORS, 1024—1125.

1) Conrad II. (the Salic), 1024—1039.

On the extinction of the Saxon line of emperors, a diet of election was convoked by the archbishop of Mentz, to take place in the vast plains on both banks of the Rhine, between Worms and Mayence (Mentz). The nations or tribes of the empire (each under its own duke) appeared in military array, under their respective banners. The Lorrainers and the Rhenish Franks were on the left bank of the Rhine; the Saxon, Suabian, Bohemian, Carinthian, and the Slavish tribes were on the right. The choice of the chiefs, or great feudatories or dukes, with the higher clergy, who met on an island of the Rhine to deliberate, fell on two cousins—Conrad, duke of Franconia, and Conrad, duke of Carinthia. The former was voted for by the Archbishop of Mentz, and was immediately acknowledged by the rest of the clergy, the younger one also confirming the choice. The oath of allegiance was then administered to the people as they advanced, according to their respective ranks, of which there were six termed *bucklers or shields* (see § 14, ii.), when they dispersed. Conrad—having

passed, like his predecessor, through the various provinces of his empire, and received from the princes, who had not presented themselves at the diet, the oath of allegiance—was crowned at Milan king of Italy, with great pomp and external magnificence; Rudolph, the king of Burgundy, and Knut, the great monarch of Danemark and England, being present at the solemnity. For the former, Conrad obtained the promise of the throne of Burgundy, which had been guaranteed by his predecessor to Henry II.; and from the latter (Knut), he obtained the hand of his daughter for his son, in consideration of which, the march of Schleswig, now no longer required as barrier against the incursions of the Normans, was ceded to Canute, so that the Eyder again became the northern boundary of the German empire. On the death of Rudolph of Burgundy, Count Eudes of Champagne claimed heirship to the states, and took possession of several fortresses; but when Conrad appeared, the Burgundian assembly elected him without opposition, and he was saluted under the title of king. Conrad pursued the count, and laid siege to St. Michel, on the Meuse (probably taken?), when the count renounced all claims to Burgundy, and acknowledged the right of Conrad. In 1034, Eudes again disturbed the peace of the empire, having been joined by Burchard of Lyons, and some other powerful, but disaffected, lords, who refused to submit to the empire. Conrad on his arrival held his court at Geneva, and was assisted by the Archbishop of Milan, who headed the Italian army. Count Eudes was again defeated, and Burchard was banished the empire. In uniting the kingdom of Burgundy to that of Lotharingia (Lorraine), already acquired, Conrad was not only master of all Germany and Italy, but obtained a preponderance of France itself. In 1037, Italy was nearly lost to the empire, in consequence of the insolent and haughty conduct of the Archbishop of Milan, whom Conrad had arrested and imprisoned; having escaped, that prelate sought an alliance with Eudes, to whom the crown of Lombardy was offered. The Milanese now armed in defence of their primate. Eudes, however, was surprised on his road to Champagne to raise a more numerous army, and after a terrible conflict with the Duke of Lower Lorraine (vassal to Conrad), near Bar-le-duc, the Champagnese army was cut to pieces. He was found dead on the field by his wife, Ermengarde. Milan, however, yet stood out. Conrad, who was in Apulia, whither he had been invited

to cleanse the papal court, now under pope Benedict IX., a boy of ten years of age, who neither commanded respect nor obedience, determined to advance into Burgundy itself. His army perished by disease in the Apulian plains, where he had unhappily tarried too long. He, therefore, accompanied by a few, entered Transjuran Burgundy, where he held an assembly of the states of the kingdom, and occupied three days in passing laws for the regulation of the kingdom. It was here probably that Conrad adopted the new regulations with respect to fiefs, which passed over into Italy, and extended ultimately into Germany and France. By these laws, the independence of the *vavassors* was secured, so that not only was the fief of the great feudatory, or vassal, held immediately from the king hereditary, but that of the *vavassor*—the man who held a smaller fief from some intermediate lord, or subordinate freeholder, under him. This system of hereditary feudalism, to a considerable extent, broke the power of the nobles, and served to strengthen that of royalty. Conrad, after witnessing with joy the coronation of his son in the church of St. Stephen of Saleur (the chapel of the Burgundian kings), departed for the purpose of surveying his provinces in the low countries, where he died, at Utrecht, 1039.

2) Henry III., 1039—1056.

Henry, in all things, endeavoured to follow in the footsteps of the late emperor, his father. His first efforts were directed to the consolidation of the family influence, and to bring the whole of the duchies under the immediate control of the crown. The ducal fiefs of Bavaria and Suabia had been presented to him by his father. Franconia he regarded as his patrimonial inheritance, and the Duchy of Carinthia he left for a long time vacant; so that he ruled immediately over the whole of the south of Germany. Besides these, there were the two kingdoms of Burgundy and Italy. Only Saxony and Lotharingia, and the two Slavonic duchies of Bohemia and Poland, were ruled by dukes of their own. On the expulsion of Peter, king of Hungary, from his dominions, by the usurper, Samuel (Aba), Henry embraced his cause, and having subdued Samuel, secured the possession of parts of Pannonia and Noricum (formerly belonging to the empire), and placed Peter, the rightful owner, on the throne, who acknowledged the emperor as his feudal lord. The empire had now attained its utmost limits. It reached from the Rhone and Saone to the Aleuta and the Bug, and embraced

three kingdoms, six German duchies, and three Slavonic. During the reign of Henry, The Truce of God was introduced into Germany, first preached under the title of the "Peace of God" (*treuga Dei*) in Aquitania. Its object, was to put an end to the private wars of the feudal nobility, whether carried on for the purposes of defence or revenge. It enjoined the suspension of hostilities from the setting of the sun on Wednesday night until its rise on the Monday morning. All fast days and days of religious solemnities, were included, while during the long fasts of Advent and of Lent, no work was allowed to be done towards the erection of new fortifications, or the repairs of old ones, unless begun fourteen days before the commencement of the fast. Churches and cemeteries were placed under the perpetual safeguard of the Truce, as well as implements of labour, the stacks of grain, and the cattle. For the further maintenance of peace, Henry conferred the southern duchies upon three of the most powerful feudatories, by which they became virtually sovereigns, and comparatively independent of the crown.

Having settled the peace of the empire on a firm basis, he made his entry into Italy, to correct the disorders of the church, arising out of the disgraceful lives of the popes and the inferior clergy, and the open and scandalous sale of the benefices (simony). Henry began with the head of the church: deposing three popes for simony who had been elected by rival parties, placed a German prelate (Clement II.) on the papal throne, by whom (after he had set aside a period for prayers and repentance) he was publicly crowned emperor. Henry on this occasion took from the people the right of electing the popes, which they had shamefully abused, and enacted that henceforward no election of a pope should be considered valid until confirmed by the emperors. The laws made by Henry for the regulation of the clergy whom he himself appointed were, however, only carried out during his reign. Hildebrand (the son of a carpenter, but a man of distinguished talents) effectually neutralized the efforts of the emperor, and, as chancellor of the papal see, used all his influence to wrest the church from the grasp of the secular power. Henry died at the early age of thirty-nine, having gained the respect of all Europe for his zeal for justice, his valour, and his piety. Before his death, he named his son (Henry IV.) as his successor, who was recognised without opposition.

3) Henry iv. 1056—1106.

a) Government under his guardians.

The administration of the empire, and the education of the youthful monarch, now only six years of age, were assigned to his mother, Agnes, and the German crown seemed destined speedily to become hereditary rather than elective; nor were the people altogether enamoured of the prospect. That the descent of the dignity to the sons of the two last and most powerful monarchs of the house of Saxony had not been opposed, was owing to their personal character, not to any change in the principles of the constitution. But now that the sovereign was a minor, and the regency in the hands of a woman, dissatisfaction, which had long been suppressed, broke out with considerable fury. The Saxons, who detested the house of Franconia, and considered that the sovereign should again be elected from themselves, espoused the cause of a rival candidate. They were, however, for a time subdued; and fortresses, strongly garrisoned, were erected among them to keep them in check; while to secure the favour of their duke (Otho of Nordheim), the duchy of Bavaria was presented to him as a fief. To insure the support of the Dukes of Carinthia and Alemannia (Suabia), in the south, those fiefs were made hereditary; but these concessions would not suffice. The conduct of Henry's ministers excited the utmost contempt, and at length a formidable conspiracy was organized, headed by the Archbishop of Cologne (Hanno), who decoyed the young prince from his mother, at Kaiserswuth, and bore him off to Cologne, usurping the regency for himself. Shortly after Hanno was compelled to admit the Archbishop of Bremen to share the authority with him; and eventually the influence of the latter triumphed over that of Hanno: and he caused the king to be armed, and declared of full age, so that nominally the guardianship ceased. Adelbert, however, continued to retain the administration in his own hands, while he allowed the youthful king to indulge unrestrained in all the excesses and follies of the age. At length the envy of the Archbishop of Cologne, the rival of Adelbert, and that of the Archbishop of Mentz, was excited, and, supported by Otho of Bavaria and the Saxons, a diet was convoked at Tribut, when they demanded from Henry, either the dismissal of his minister, or the resignation of his crown. Adelbert was dismissed and banished,

and his cathedral of Bremen was openly plundered by the Saxons, who exultingly stripped it of all its valuables. Within three years, Adelbert again appeared at court, and eventually regained his wonted ascendancy over his enemies. Henry's conduct towards Saxony at length aroused the indignation of Otho of Bavaria, the former duke of that people, and the standard of revolt was again raised. Otho, at last, was deposed and imprisoned, and his dukedom given to his son-in-law, Guelph, or Welf, the ancestor of the still remaining branch of that house. Magnus, the son of the Duke of Saxony, and the brother of Otho, was also in prison, and should have succeeded his father in the duchy of Saxony, but Henry wished to retain it as a fief of the empire; Magnus, however, would not resign his claims; while to secure it, a number of fortified castles were again erected to keep the Saxons in check.

b) War with the Saxons, 1073—1075.

Henry had married an Italian princess, and to obtain a divorce from her, he offered the tithes of Thuringia to the Archbishop of Mentz to plead his cause. Hanno consented, but the Thuringians refused to yield, never having yet paid them. About the same time the Saxon territories were overrun by the freebooters placed by the king in the Saxon fortresses, who committed the most disgraceful excesses, both upon persons and property. Remonstrances had proved fruitless, and an appeal to arms was resolved upon, in which they were seconded by the Thuringians, and also by Otho, the Bavarian duke, whom Henry had deposed. Sixty thousand Saxons approached Goslar towards the Harzburg, and the result was that Henry was compelled to enter into a treaty of peace (at Gerstungen, on the Werra), to abandon the Thuringian tithe, to demolish the Saxon fortresses, to restore Duke Otho to his duchy, and to set at liberty Magnus, the son of the Duke of Saxony, whom he had imprisoned. These advantages served only to increase the insolence of the Saxons, who destroyed the Harzburg. This roused the indignation of the princes of Upper Germany and the provinces on the Rhine, who leagued with the king against them, and totally broke their power by the victory of Hohenburga, on the Hunshutt. The Saxon nobles submitted to the king on condition that their titles and possessions should be reserved to them; but Henry, whose

vengeance was not yet satisfied, imprisoned them, and ordered the fortresses which had been destroyed to be rebuilt. The Saxons in their distress appealed to the pope.

c) Conflict between Gregory VII. and the German Princes, 1073—1085.

Hildebrand (of Soana, in Tuscany), during the period he filled the offices, first, of subdeacon, then of archdeacon, to five successive popes, had been gradually paving the way for the advancement of the ecclesiastical over the secular power. In 1059, he obtained of the council held in the church of St. John Lateran the passing of the following resolutions:—That the election of the popes should be vested in the cardinals; and the nomination of all prelates in the chapters jointly with the popes. To separate the clergy from society at large, he forbade the marriage of priests, which, till then, had been permitted, and even sanctioned by some of the provincial councils, especially those of Lombardy. All power was, he said, vested in the pope, who, as an unerring man by virtue of his election, could alone make and depose bishops, convoke and dissolve councils. He was above all secular power, not amenable even to princes, whom he could depose at will, and whose subjects he could at any time release from their allegiance.

To carry out this immense revolution, Hildebrand saw the necessity, at least for a while, of obtaining the assistance of the secular power, and therefore engaged the valiant Normans on his side. Henry was forced to retreat, and the pope, from motives of gratitude, conferred the title of duke on Robert Guiscard, the Norman adventurer, who had succeeded his brother in the counties of Apulia and Calabria, held as fiefs, and, under certain conditions, the island of Sicily was also awarded to him on its being subjected. In return for these splendid gifts, the Normans were to afford protection to the pope and the cardinals against any power that might be brought against them. In 1073, Hildebrand became pope, under the name of Gregory VII., when he completely emancipated the church from the power of the state. In a council held at Rome (1074), laws interdicting the marriage of the priests and against simony, carried on to an enormous extent by the sovereign as well as the feudal nobility, were passed; and, in 1075, another council was held, when a law prohibiting bishops and abbots from receiving investiture (investing with the ring and staff) from the hands of the

temporal sovereign was passed, and enforced by the excommunication of some of the ministers of Henry for simony; but Henry took no notice of these proceedings, and continued to bestow bishoprics and abbacies as before. This, and the complaints of the Saxons, with whom he had violated his oath and imprisoned their nobles, led to his being summoned to defend himself before a synod at Rome (1076). The emperor, enraged at their proceedings, instantly convoked a diet at Worms, which was attended by upwards of twenty-six bishops, besides the nobles. At this assembly, Gregory VII. was deposed, and the fact made known to him at Rome. On its receipt, the pope issued a sentence of excommunication against the emperor, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance. This bold step of the pope produced its desired effect; the disaffected nobles were glad to be released from their obligations and their duty. At the earnest entreaty of Henry, the election was deferred for twelve months, on condition of his procuring absolution. Henry crossed the Alps, and hastened to the pope, who then resided with the famous Countess Matilda, whose husband had separated from her to follow the emperor against the pope. On his arrival at her castle at Canopa, he was compelled to do penance in one of the outer courts, for three days and nights, in the depth of winter, clad only in a woollen shirt and barefooted. Henry agreed to submit himself to a tribunal composed of the German nobility, and to exercise none of the functions of royalty until re-elected by the diet of the empire: but he soon regretted the steps he had taken, by which he had disgusted his friends and rendered himself despicable in the eyes of all the sovereigns of Europe; he therefore resolved to take up arms. During his absence, the nobles, under the superintendence of the papal legate, had chosen his brother-in-law, Rudolph, duke of Suabia, in his room; who, in accordance with the wishes of the legate, had engaged to resign the right of presentation to the vacant bishoprics, and, to gratify the nobles, that of the hereditary descent of the crown. Between Rudolph and Henry, the latter of whom was supported by the nobles and clergy of Lombardy, there were two undecisive engagements fought, the successes of both being equal. Rudolph's election was confirmed by the pope, and Henry was again excommunicated. He, in his turn, deposed the pope, and elected the Archbishop of Ravenna (Clement III.) to the papal chair. The war now

raged throughout the empire; and in a third engagement, at Walksheim, in Thuringia (1080), Rudolph was slain by the renowned Godfrey (of Bouillon?) Precisely on the same day the troops of the Countess Matilda were defeated in Mantua by the generals of the emperor. Henry conferred the fief of Rudolph (Suabia) upon Frederic, the founder of the celebrated house of Hohenstauffen, and committed to him the conduct of affairs in Germany, while he passed over into Italy, there to decide by force of arms the dispute between him and the pope. The talent and courage of Robert Guiscard were exercised in favour of the latter, but the Normans could not successfully resist the heroic bravery of Henry, who penetrated as far as Rome, and compelled the Romans to accept his anti-pope, Clement III., who placed the imperial diadem on the head of the emperor on the 31st of March, 1085. On the approach of Henry, Gregory had fled in despair to the castle of St. Angelo; from which place, Robert the Norman (who set fire to the city, reducing more than half of it to ashes) conveyed him to Salerno, where he died, 1085. Before his death, Gregory had again fulminated another sentence of excommunication against Henry, during whose absence from Germany, the Saxons and Suabians had elected Count Hermann of Luxemburg emperor, who acknowledged himself a vassal of the pope, and took the oath accordingly. After a turbulent and unquiet reign of seven years, during which he obtained one victory over Henry, at the Bleichfeld, near Wurtzbug (1086), he resigned the crown.

d) The Rebellion of the sons of Henry IV. against their father.

Intolerant as was the conduct of Gregory, it led him no farther than to set up rival emperors, and to excite intestine wars against his opponents; but the policy of his successors went so far as to arm sons against their own father. Instigated by Pope Urban II. and his adherents, Conrad, the eldest son of Henry (invested with royal dignity in 1087), assumed the crown of Italy, in which country his father had left him as his representative. A diet of German princes, assembled at Cologne, declared him in consequence ineligible to the crown of Germany, which was secured to his younger brother, Henry V., who engaged at his coronation not to usurp the government during the lifetime of his father. This promise was, however, soon broken. Conrad, the king of Italy, died

1101, when the new pope, Pascal II., entered into negotiations with the second son of Henry to incite him to revolt, as his predecessor had done with Conrad. The pope having absolved him from the oath taken at his coronation, and pronounced a blessing on his arms, he made his father prisoner, and, at an assembly held at Ingelheim, threatened him with instant death if he refused to abdicate the throne. Henry, after some time, contrived to escape from the grasp of his son, and fled to Lorraine, where, at Louvaine, he was surrounded by a few faithful adherents; new troubles, however, burst upon him, and he died broken hearted at Liege, 1106. Three years after (the sentence of excommunication having been reversed) he was disinterred, and conveyed with great pomp to the cathedral church of Spire, 1111.

4) Henry V., 1106—1125.

Henry, on his accession to power, endeavoured to restore the royal authority to its former greatness, and for this purpose assumed the supremacy over the Bohemian kingdom, which had been long neglected. His next object was to bring to a close the disputes between himself and the pope respecting investiture. In a council, however, held at Troyes, Pope Pascal II. renewed the declarations, and prohibited ecclesiastics, of whatever grade, to perform any homage to a layman. Henry's representatives appealed to a general council, but their appeal was disregarded; and Henry crossed the Alps with a large army, to obtain by force, what could not be gained by argument. Pascal, however, ere Henry reached Rome, sent a deputation with proposals to resign the temporal dignities with which the church had been invested by successive monarchs, and to be content with the tithes and donations derived from private bounty. "Only," said he, "let Henry renounce the right of investiture by the emperor (the right of filling up the vacancies), and the church will restore all that it has received from secular princes since the time of Charlemagne."* This was opposed by the German bishops, and on the Romans taking up arms, the pope was seized and treated with great

* Whether these arrangements were entered into or ratified is uncertain. According to some, Henry agreed to renounce the right of investiture, provided Pascal compelled the ecclesiastics to surrender the feudal possessions, jurisdictions, and honours which they had at any time received from the crown.

indignity, and acting under the influence of fear, he gave up the point, and yielded the right to Henry, whom he crowned emperor, and swore never to excommunicate. Henry returned to Germany in triumph, but the struggle was, as yet, only begun. The cardinals and bishops remonstrated against the proceedings, and held a council, at which Pascal explained the transactions which had taken place between him and the emperor, and offered to resign the popedom. The council, however, reversed the papal bull, and solemnly excommunicated the emperor, a sentence which was confirmed by many of the clergy of Germany and France. At this period, the Saxons, and some of the German princes, rose up against Henry, prompted by the German prelates in the interest of the popes. The Count Palatine of the Rhine and the Duke of Suabia, however, remained faithful to him, as likewise did his nephew Conrad (just created duke of Franconia). With these, Henry sustained the conflict against his superior vassals, and afterwards crossed the Alps into Italy, once more to wreak his vengeance on the pope, who fled at his approach, and died shortly after (1118). He was succeeded by Gelasius II., who was obliged to take refuge in the Campagna, whilst Henry endeavoured to seat a Spanish prelate (Burdino, archbishop of Braga) upon the papal throne, who took the name of Gregory VIII. Gelasius died in exile, 1119. The cardinals who had accompanied the late pope, elected Guido, bishop of Vienna, as his successor, under the name of Calixtus II. Henry, during this period, reigned dominant over Italy, with the anti-pope Gregory VIII.; but in the spring of 1120, Calixtus advanced into Italy from Gaul, and was received with acclamations by the Romans. Gregory fled to Sutri, where he was pursued by Calixtus, into whose hands he fell. After being exposed to the outrages of the Romans, he was consigned to a dungeon. At length, however, fatigued and worn out by the continual revolts of the great feudatories in Germany, Henry sought an accommodation. A compromise was effected at Worms, in September, 1122, and ratified soon after at Rome by the pope himself, who anew admitted Henry and his adherents to the communion, and removed all anathemas pronounced against them. By this concordat, Henry renounced the right of investiture with the ring and staff, and agreed to restore the ecclesiastical property which he had sequestrated, and retained the sceptre, or the right of investing the person

chosen with the temporal power attached to the church, while the election of bishops and abbots was to take place in his presence. In the event of a dispute, the question was to be decided by the emperor, the archbishops and bishops acting as assessors.

Changes in the Constitution during the reigns of the Saxon and Franconian Emperors.

1) The Monarchy.—With the extinction of the Carolingian line, the division of the empire equally among the sons disappears, and the states become partly of an hereditary, and partly of an elective character. Until the reign of Henry IV., the heir was always selected from the reigning family while one remained, and this selection was approved and confirmed by the feudatories of the empire. Subsequently, this election, and oftentimes also the coronation, took place during the lifetime of the reigning monarch: hence there was a danger of the monarchy becoming altogether hereditary in one family. The extinction of a dynasty, however, prevented this. In such cases, elections were solemnly resorted to; and during the reign of Henry IV., the elective principle was visibly manifested by the great feudatories. The limits of the royal power do not seem to have been fixed by any law, but rather to have been greater or less in its amount according to the wealth and dignity of the family, or, as in the cases of Conrad II. and Henry III., the personal character of the sovereign.

2) The Dukes, under Charlemagne, were restricted to the duty of commanding the army, or leading the people out to war (anciently their sole prerogative). This authority was augmented under his successors, who united with the military command the civil jurisdiction, and became the ministers of the legislative powers, which they were bound to administer according to the strict letter of the law; and when, under the successors of Charlemagne, the *missi dominici* were not sent, they exercised the functions of that office also; while at the same time they sat as the representatives of the king in the legal courts and in the public assemblies. This so increased their power, that at length it became dangerous to the monarchy, while its influence in the election of the sovereign was all but paramount. This was, however, somewhat compensated for by the liberties granted to the inhabitants of towns and cities, in which were erected communities, or corporate bodies, which, as they were indebted to the crown for their privileges, were naturally inclined to the sovereign, from whom alone their powers were obtained: hence they served not only as a counterpoise in the general assemblies to the power of the secular and ecclesiastical nobles, but were also the medium of furnishing supplies to meet the exigencies of the state. The ducal dignity was, in some of the provinces, elective, as in Alemannia and Lotharingia, but not in Franconia (nor in Saxony, since the time of Charlemagne); it was, however, generally allowed to remain in the family.

3) The dignity of Royal or Palatine Count (*Comitatus*)

terra), which, during the Merovingian and Carolingian periods, was one of great importance. To the count belonged the exercise of the supreme authority, either in the smaller districts, or over entire provinces. Before them appeared the appellants from the ducal courts, and their decision was final. In matters of great importance, there was, however, the right of appeal to the emperor. This office or dignity disappeared during the Carolingian period, but was revived in the tenth century (*Comitatus fisci*), when it appears divested of its high judicial character, and is almost restricted to the protecting of the revenues or regalias of the sovereign, and the oversight of the (*fiscus*) collectors of the royal dues or taxes; the supplies of the exchequer. This dignity, in many instances, was in the gift of the sovereign; in others it was hereditary.

4) The Counts (*Comites*), under the Franconian emperors, were made hereditary; they exercised judicial power over their own vassals, but not, by any means, to the same extent as the counts royal or palatine, or the counts fiscal; neither had they any seats in the general diets (excepting that of election), only in the provincial states.

§ 25.

ITALY, 887—1125.

A. The Kingdom of Italy,

Which embraced Upper and Central Italy, was ruled 1) by kings of its own until 961. For during the reign of Arnulf, when the disputes between the dukes of Friuli and Spoleto broke out, his authority over Italy lasted only so long as he remained with his army in the kingdom; and this was the case with all the foreign kings of Italy, until the reign of Otho I., who, in 961, reunited it with Germany. At the same time, Upper Italy was wasted by the Hungarians—sometimes the allies of the Franks, at others, of the Italians; while Lower Italy, and portions of Central Italy, fell a prey to the Arabians and the Normans, etc.

Berenger I. (887—924), Duke of Friuli, was proclaimed king of Italy, 887, and emperor, in 915. The reign of Berenger was disturbed by no less than four anti-kings. Guido of Spoleto, and his son, were both crowned by Pope Stephen V., 891. On their death, Louis, son of Boson, king of Provence, entered Italy with a large army, and advanced as far as Rome, where he was crowned by Pope Benedict IV. Berenger, however, compelled him to evacuate Italy; and afterwards, on his making a second invasion, seized his person, and put out his eyes. After he had reigned well for sixteen years, the turbulent and fickle nobles of Italy, headed by the Archbishop of Milan, offered the crown to Rudolph II., the fourth rival of Berenger, who, aware of the treason, engaged the Hungarians as his allies, and attacked them in the mountains of Brescia. They, however, proceeded until they arrived at Pavia,

where Rudolph received the iron crown of Lombardy. Berenger assembled his army in the duchy of Friuli and Verona, but the final battle was fought at Firenzuola, where Rudolph was defeated. Boniface, the brother-in-law of Rudolph, however, meeting the fatigued conquerors on their return, fell upon them by surprise, and entirely routed them. Berenger fled, and soon after fell by the hand of an assassin, whom he had loaded with favours. Rudolph now united the two crowns of Lombardy and Italy. In 924, Italy became a prey to the Huns; Pavia, the capital, was reduced to ashes. They were, at length, while suffering from pestilence and famine, vanquished by the united efforts of Rudolph and Hugues, or Eudes, the Count of Provence. After this, Eudes became the rival of Rudolph, and was urged on in his ambitious designs by the Archbishop of Milan. He entered Pavia, and was crowned (927?) king of Lombardy. No general action, however, took place, but a compromise was entered into. Eudes resigned his ancient heritage (Burgundy) to receive Italy, and divided it into two counties, Vienne and Arles. The former he bestowed on Boson, the third brother of Rudolph; while Arles, or Transjuran Burgundy, was presented to Rudolph in exchange for Italy. To induce Rudolph not to obey the call of the Italians, who again called upon him to be their king, Provence was ceded to him: thus the new kingdom of Arles was founded (930). In 937 Rudolph died, deeply regretted by his subjects, after a short reign of seven years. Eudes associated with him in the government his son Lothaire, and had much difficulty in retaining it against the continual revolts of the powerful nobles. At length, a powerful party was raised against him by the Margrave of Ivrea, who espoused the cause of Berenger II., grandson of Berenger I. Eudes was driven to his county of Provence, and Lothaire soon after died from poison(?). Adelaide, the widow of Lothaire, appealed to Otho, the king of Germany, who married the widowed queen, and allowed Berenger to hold Italy as a fief. In 961, Otho seized the crown for himself, and placed Berenger in a fortress in Germany, where he died.

2) Italy was also ruled by German kings (subsequently to 961), who remained in undisturbed possession, with the exception of the futile attempt of Henry II., the Margrave of Ivrea, to regain the crown (see § 23, 5).

Since the time of Otho I., Italy appears to have been split into a number of ecclesiastical and secular, or spiritual and temporal fiefs—duchies, marquisates, viscounties, etc. In order to check the growing power of the great feudatories, the Emperor Conrad, in the new constitution which he propounded on the plains of Roncaglia (1038), made the lesser, or inferior fiefs, hereditary, and determined that, henceforward, every man should enjoy the privilege of being tried by his equals (peers).

On the decline of the imperial authority, during the disputes between the emperors Henry IV. and V. and the pontifical authorities, the Lombardian cities threw off the jurisdiction of

the imperial governors (lieutenants), and formed themselves into republics, under consuls and magistrates of their own. The emperor, however, still retained the title of king of Italy.

B. Venice.

From the invasion of Attila, in 452, the marshes (Lagunes) at the extremity of the Adriatic had been the refuge of all the rich inhabitants of Padua, Vicenza, Verona, and other great cities of Venetia; so that, at length, a numerous population was gathered there. They were, at first, governed by tribunes under the Roman empire; afterwards they fell under the power of the Eastern, or Ostrogoths; and, lastly, became the subjects of the Eastern Roman Empire. In 697, the citizens of the various small republics which had arisen amongst them, met together in one great assembly at Heraclea, and elected a chief, whom they called *Doge*, or *duke*, who acted as lieutenant under the emperor of Constantinople, still regarding themselves as members of the Eastern empire. During the war against Pepin, they made choice of the island Rialto, upon which they built the city of Venice, the capital of their republic. Being connected by bridges with the other islands, it became the centre of a mighty maritime republic, which, by its conquests in Dalmatia about the year 1000, considerably extended its dominions, while by means of its extensive commerce, favoured by its position between the two most powerful states of Europe, it soon rose to be one of the most important of the Italian states, and eventually the greatest maritime power of the world.

C. Papal Italy, or the Ecclesiastical States.

The foundation of the temporal power of the pope was laid by Pepin (see § 20), who compelled Astolphus of Lombardy to restore the exarchate of Ravenna (the provinces of Romagna and Urbino), not to the Greek empire (to which they belonged), but to the pope. These possessions, which were also increased by grants of territory in Tuscia and on the other side of the Tiber, resigned by the Duke of Benevento, were subsequently confirmed to the pope by Charlemagne. To these were afterwards granted by Henry III. to Leo IX., in lieu of the revenues of several of the Franconian churches, the city of Benevento, with the surrounding lands. A still more important accession, however, was obtained (in 1115), when the margravine, Ma-

tilda of Tuscany, the friend of Hildebrand (Gregory VII.), gave to the church all her allodes, embracing one-half of the province of Tuscia. Apulia and Calabria were held as fiefs from the pope by the Normans, who also paid a large yearly tribute for the Island of Sicily.

D. Lower Italy.

In the eleventh century, the whole of Lower Italy fell into the hands of the Normans, who, at first, visited the Italian peninsula as pilgrims to the cave on Mount Gorgona. In return for some military service they rendered to the Romans against the Greeks, they received payment in lands on the western coast, which they colonised. The Duke of Naples erected for them the town of Aversa. Here they were afterwards joined by the twelve sons of Tancred de Hauteville of Normandy, and other adventurers, who were employed by the Greeks against the Saracens of Sicily. Dissatisfied with the division of the spoils, they resolved to indemnify themselves by making reprisals in the Italian territories. They therefore invaded Apulia, and in three years wrested nearly the whole of it from the Greek empire, and divided it into twelve counties, which were placed under the control of the Count of Apulia, who held his court at Melfi. After several contests with the Romans, in 1053, the papal troops were vanquished, and Pope Nicholas II. was taken prisoner; his release was only obtained by bestowing on them their present and future conquests in Apulia and Calabria, as a fief of the papal see (a relation still retained by the kingdom of Naples). In 1060, on the death of Humphrey, the last count of Apulia, the title of duke was conferred upon Robert Guiscard by the pope, and Sicily (to be hereafter subdued) was also included in the dignity. Twenty years, however, were spent in warfare before the whole of Apulia and Calabria were in his possession; and thirty years were actively occupied against the Saracens of Sicily, by Roger, the last of the twelve brothers, before that island was subdued. This was accomplished in 1090, when he ruled over it under the title of great count, and allowed the Saracens to retain their religion and their property, unmolested. The ambition of Guiscard, and the restless character of his soldiers, led him to seek further conquests; and under the pretext of re-establishing Michael, the Greek emperor (whose son had married the daughter

of Robert), on his throne, assembled a large army, and laid siege to Durazzo, which was taken by treachery after a valiant defence. Guiscard advanced into Thessaly; but on hearing that the cities of Apulia were in revolt, and that the German emperor (Henry v.) was advancing into Lower Italy, he left the command of the army to Bohemund, and passed over to Apulia. Bohemund being betrayed and forsaken by the counts, was forced to return to his father. Meanwhile Henry v. had entered Rome, and Gregory was besieged in the Vatican. Guiscard hastened to assist the pontiff in his distress, and compelled the Germans to retire, when Gregory was liberated. In 1084, Guiscard again prepared to attack the Eastern empire; and, by evading the combined fleets of the Greeks and Venetians sailing off the coast of Greece, landed his army safely in Epirus. Two naval engagements took place between the Normans and the Greek and Venetian fleets, to the advantage of the latter; but in the third the Normans triumphed, and gained a complete victory. Guiscard died of an epidemic disease in Cephalenia, in his seventieth year, while making preparations for a renewal of the war in the ensuing spring. He was succeeded by his second son, Roger Bohemund, 1085, who dying without issue, the duchy passed over to the great Count of Sicily, Roger II., the nephew of Robert Guiscard, who attached himself to the interests of the anti-pope Anacletus II., by whom he was invested with the royal dignity, and crowned at Palermo. On the death of the Emperor Lothaire, he dispossessed the Prince of Capua of his possessions, and subdued the duchy of Naples, 1139; thus completing the conquest of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

E. The Islands.

Sicily was wrested from the Byzantine Greeks by the Arabians, or Saracens, who, in turn, were conquered by the Normans. Sardinia and Corsica fell into the hands of the Arabs, in 850, when the Greeks were driven out of possession. After the expulsion of the Arabs, they were possessed by the Genoese and Pisans, and became the cause of a fierce and sanguinary war between these two republics for upwards of two centuries. They were ruled over by a number of petty feudal lords, and were considered to belong to Italy, and consequently were deemed a portion of the Roman German empire.

§ 26.

France, under the last of the Carlovings, 887—987.

As at the last division of the Franconian empire, the only survivor of the Carolingian races, Charles the Simple, was still a child, the nobles of the empire, sorely pressed upon by the piratical Normans, elected Count Eudes, or Otho, of Paris.

1. Otho, Count of Paris (888—898), was not acknowledged by the Duke of Aquitania (Rainulf II.), although he was crowned at Compiègne, and much esteemed for his personal bravery; while his possessions, extending from the Meuse to the Loire, were great. He could not, however, resist the inroads of the Normans, who took possession of Meux, and descended the Loire, on the way to Paris.

2. Charles IV., usually called the Simple (896—923).—Otho had subdued the Aquitanian duke, Gauzbert, and taken possession of the country south of the Loire, but during his absence on this expedition, Charles was presented to the Neustrians by the powerful Archbishop of Rheims, as their rightful sovereign (893). After the ceremony of consecration, the partisans of the youthful monarch (fourteen years of age) put themselves in motion to contest the crown with Otho. No battle, however, took place; an appeal was made to the German emperor, when Charles timidly absented himself, and Otho was confirmed in the kingdom. In 896, Otho granted to Charles the appanage of Neustria (?); but the former dying in 898, the grandees of Neustria offered the crown to Charles, then at Rheims, where he was a second time crowned. The complaints of the people against the Normans, who had devastated the country on the Seine, besieged Paris and Chartres, and massacred the inhabitants of numerous other towns, at length aroused Charles, who, however, did nothing to defend his people. Charles sent the Archbishop of Rouen to Rolla, the most formidable chief among the Normans, offering him a vast province of France as the price of peace, provided he embraced the Christian faith. Rolla (Robert), with many of his chiefs, and a large portion of his army, were baptized, lands were set apart for the church, and the whole of maritime Neustria and Brittany were divided among his officers and troops, and erected into counties. Thus was put to an end a war of devastation and brigandage, which had wasted the

western coasts of France for upwards of a century. In 912, the Lorrainers, dissatisfied with being united to Germany, offered their crown to Charles, who accepted it, and so became opposed to Conrad I., king of Germany, his rival. From 913, Charles entirely abandoned himself to the counsels of a favourite of low birth, Haganon, whose conduct at length so disgusted the nobles of the kingdom, that they took up arms against him. Charles fled to Lorraine, being deserted by his partisans; and Robert, considering that the king had virtually abdicated, caused himself to be crowned in his stead, at St. Remi (922).

Robert, Count of Paris, and Duke of Francia, was the brother of the great Count Eudes, or Otho. On his accession to the crown, he sent an army in pursuit of Charles, who had taken refuge in Lorraine, when an armistice was agreed upon. Charles, however, soon violated it, and came suddenly upon Robert at Soissons, where he was slain (923), and was succeeded by his son-in-law.

3. Rudolph (Raoul), Duke of Burgundy, after the defeat of Charles on the Oise, was placed on the throne by the interest of Hugues, the master of all the territory lying between the Seine and the Loire (duchy of France). After his coronation, the civil wars were put an end to by Heribert, the count of Vermandois, who got possession of the dethroned king, and imprisoned him at Chateau Thierrî. Rudolph, however, subsequently procured his liberty, and gave him the palace of Attigny: he died twelvemonths after, at Peronne, 929. The reign of Rudolph was marked by the civil wars which were maintained between the great feudatories; the inroads and aggressions of the Normans, which he frequently repulsed with loss; and the ravages of the Hungarians, in the king's duchy of Burgundy, against whom he was advancing when he died at Autun, 936.

4. Louis IV. (beyond the sea, or the stranger—*Outre Mer*).—On the captivity of Charles the Simple, by the treachery of the Count of Vermandois, Odgiva, the queen, and daughter of Edward the Elder of England, fled to the latter country with her son Louis, then three years of age. On the death of Rudolph, Hugues, the most powerful lord of France, and who had also placed the crown on the head of the last monarch, caused Louis (now sixteen years of age) to return to France, when, with the assistance of William, the Duke of Normandy, and other lords, he was acknowledged king, and

crowned at Laon (his own domain), by the Archbishop of Rheims (937). Louis determined not to be the puppet of the Count Hugues: hence the latter conspired with Heribert, the Count of Vermandois, against him. After some inconsiderable engagements, the refractory nobles were compelled, for the present, to retire. In 939, the Lorrainers offered their crown to the young prince, who accepted it, and entered Alsatia. Otho, however, soon wrested it out of his hands, being assisted by the rebel counts of Paris and Vermandois. Louis was now hemmed in on all sides by his enemies; and in the following year Otho the Great appeared in Lorraine, where he was acknowledged king of Romance France. At length a truce was agreed to between Otho and Louis, when the latter retired into Burgundy, where he was afterwards defeated by the Count of Vermandois and Hugues; and Otho, desirous of re-establishing peace in the West, seconded the efforts of the papal legate, who had been despatched to France, by Stephen VIII., for the purpose of excommunicating the rebel lords, unless they gave up the contest. Hugues and Heribert did homage to Charles for their counties, and peace was restored. Subsequently Charles and Hugues endeavoured to recover Normandy, which they agreed to divide between them; but were unsuccessful. The civil wars, which had so long desolated France, however, soon broke out again, and continued to trouble the remaining years of the reign of Louis, who was killed by his horse falling upon him, on his way to Rheims from Laon, 954.

Lothaire (954), son of Louis, and nephew of Otho of Germany, a minor, succeeded to the crown under the auspices of the great Count of Paris, Hugues, who gained by his adhesion to the cause of the youthful monarch the duchy of Aquitania, in 956 died, and his county was inherited by Hugues, surnamed Capet. In 986 Lothaire died, and Louis v. (*le Fainéant—nihil fecit*—the Idler), who had been associated with him in the government since 979, was crowned at Compiègne; his uncle Charles, who had accepted of the duchy of Lorraine as a German fief, was excluded. After a reign of fourteen months (according to some), he was poisoned by his wife, Blanche, in the interest of the great Count of Paris, Hugues (Hugh Capet), and died 987. Charles, duke of Lorraine, made an attempt to obtain the crown; but Hugues had been already consecrated at Rheims. Louis v. was the last of the Carolingian race.

France, for a long time, had ceased to be a kingdom; it was rather an assemblage of states of different sizes. The great lords were the only real sovereigns of France; the whole territory was split into a number of countless fiefs, the larger of which were governed by dukes, marquises, and counts; the smaller, by viscounts and lords. These were all more or less independent, and assumed the right of waging war either against the sovereign, or separately against each other, for the purposes of private interests. Even the domains of the crown were at length so usurped or detached from the possession of the sovereign, that during the period of the last Carolingians the kings were reduced to great distress. Soissons, Laon, and a few petty domains, constituted all that the sovereign could properly be said to hold.

The immediate fiefs of the crown, the possessors of which shared equally with the sovereign the authority or power of royalty, were the duchies of Francia (between the Seine and the Loire), Normandy, with Bretagne (Brittany), Aquitania, or Guienne (with which subsequently the duchy of Gascoigne (Gascony) was united), and Burgundy; to these may be added the counties of Toulouse, Flanders, and the Vermandois (capital, St. Quentin).

Independently of the territorial division of France during this period, there was another division founded on language. The inhabitants north of the Loire, the Germans, preserved the ancient *Teutonic*, the *lingua Franca*, which was the language of the court and government, while the *Roman*, or *Romance*, was spoken by the people south of the Loire: this, when polished by the refinements of the court, assumed, at length, a new and purer form, and, in process of time, became the parent of the *modern French*. The language north of the Loire was termed *langue d'oïl*; that of the south, *langue d'oc*. The national character of the two people widely differed. The Frenchman of the north was daring and reckless, characterized by a fondness of display, pomp, and outward show; while the southern Frenchman was more wily and cunning, but yet active and industrious, and more moderate in his desires. In the north, the territorial or feudal laws formed the basis of the constitution, —and in the south, the Roman laws.

§ 27.

FRANCE, UNDER THE FIRST FOUR CAPETIANS.

Hugh, Robert, Henry, and Philip, 987—1108.

Hugh (Hugues) Capet (987) was duke of France, count of Paris and Orleans, and abbot of many rich abbeys; his brother was Duke of Burgundy, and his brother-in-law held the duchy of Normandy. On the rebellious conduct of Hugh Capet, in causing himself to be elected king, Charles of Lorraine seized Laon and Rheims, from which Hugh could not by force of arms displace him. A conspiracy, headed by the Bishop of Laon, however, placed Charles and his nephew, the Archbishop of Rheims, in the king's hands, by whom they were imprisoned. Charles soon after died; and the archbishop

was restored, after a while, by command of the pope, to all his dignities. Hugh was engaged during nearly the whole of his reign in struggles with the church, while civil wars between the great feudatories raged throughout the kingdom. He died, probably at Paris, 996 (?), and was succeeded by his only son, Robert II., who, for the last eight years, had shared the government with his father, and been crowned as his successor. He was engaged in disputes with the church, in consequence of his marriage with Bertha, but after five years was compelled to yield and to marry another. In 1002, on the death of his uncle Henry, the duchy of Burgundy was nominally added to the royal domains; but the feudal lords refused to acknowledge the authority of the king, until 1016, when they agreed to submit to his second son, Henry, who was acknowledged Duke of Burgundy, while his brother was elected count. Robert was almost an imbecile, without vigour and capacity, and chiefly employed himself in the composition and singing of psalms at St. Denis. He died 1035, and his son Henry was crowned at Rheims. To secure peace between him and his brother Robert, he conferred upon the latter the duchy of Burgundy, as a fief, while to the Duke of Normandy the territory of the Vexin was ceded. To allow the pope no cause of spiritual war against him, Henry married a Russian princess (Anna). He was, notwithstanding, sufficiently engaged against the greater vassals, the Count of Champagne and the Duke of Normandy. During this reign the *Trêve de Dieu*, or Truce of God, was established by the priesthood, by which a check was put to the unceasing warfare of the nobles. Henry died, 1060, and was succeeded by Philip I., who was only seven years of age when he commenced his reign. During his minority, he was placed under the guardianship of Baldwin, count of Flandria. The most memorable event of the reign of Philip is the conquest of Anglia (Engla-land) by the Duke of Normandy.

During the reign of the first four Capetian monarchs may be observed the revival of the monarchic principle; at present, indeed, without authority or influence, which was in the hands of the vassals, but yet inspiring a deep reverence and respect. The greater feudatories, even when contending with the sovereign, considered it not only impolitic, but impious, to attack his suzerain, or liege lord; and it not unfrequently happened that the wing or body of an army led by the sovereign was allowed to escape, unattacked and uninjured, when all the rest were either cut off or vanquished.

§ 28.

ENGLAND (ANGLE-LAND), UNDER THE WEST SAXON
KINGS, 827—1016.

All Britain was now subjected to the kings of Wessex and Mercia, between whom a fierce rivalry prevailed. Under Egbert of Wessex, Mercia was soon subdued; the terrible battle of Ellandune (Wilton) decided the fate of the kingdom; Kent, Surrey, and Sussex soon acknowledged the authority of Egbert. In 823, East Anglia submitted. Egbert was now lord of all the states south of the Humber. He next proceeded against the Angles of Northumbria, who became his tributaries, as also did the Britons north of the Severn (the Welsh). Hence he now nominally united under one crown the whole of Britain. The government was, as yet, not concentrated; there was no common legislature; each state and people remained as independent and as distinct as before. In 787, the Danes became the incessant and inveterate foes of the Britons; and during the last eleven years of Egbert's reign, attacked the western districts, where they gained a footing, and joined the *Welsh* of Cornwall. They were defeated by Egbert, who died 886, and was succeeded by Ethelwulf, the king of Kent, who for fifteen years was just able to keep the Danes in check. For the purpose of securing the crown to his son Alfred, he was sent to Rome, to which place, also, Ethelwulf soon after proceeded with presents. Alfred was anointed king by Pope Leo, 853; and Ethelwulf, on his return, married Judith, the daughter of Charles the Bald, king of the Franks, and died four years after. He was succeeded by Ethelbald, in whose reign the Danes, or Northmen, attacked the kingdom of Northumbria, and seized the greater part of it, and penetrated into Mercia, and took the town of Snottingahame (Nottingham). The wars were continued with ruinous success until the accession of the youngest son of Ethelwulf.

Alfred the Great, 871—901.

Alfred (probably king of the Britons in Wales?) unwillingly accepted the royal dignity. At this period, the country was in a state of extreme misery and devastation. The whole of England, as far as Wessex, and afterwards as far as Somerset, was in the hands of the Danes. Nine pitched battles were fought in one year. Mercia was entirely in their power, and a sort of predatory warfare was carried on in every part of the

island by the Northmen, or Danes, who, at length, under Hrolf, or Rollo, took their departure for France, where they were more successful even than in England, Rollo becoming the first duke of Normandy. In 887, the Danes made a sudden irruption into Wilts and the adjoining shires. Alfred, with his aged mother, sought shelter in the Isle of Athelney, a secluded spot, environed by marshes and moors: here he spent the winter in solitude. While Alfred was thus secluded, the men of Wessex gained a signal victory over the Danes, who attempted a landing on the Somerset coast; the leaders were slain, and their followers routed. When the news of this victory reached Alfred in his retirement, he determined to profit by it; and leaving his place of concealment, he disguised himself as a wandering minstrel, and stole into the Danish camp, thereby ascertaining its strength, and the position and number of its army, etc. Accompanied by the men of Somerset, he raised his standard on the borders of Selwood Forest, where he was joined by the inhabitants of Somerset, Dorset, and Hants. He met the Danes at Ethandune (near Westbury, Wilts?). The Danes were completely vanquished, and compelled to flee to their entrenchments, in which they were blockaded for fourteen days, and at length submitted to Alfred's terms. Guthrum, the king, embraced Christianity, and the Danes followed his example. Alfred ceded to them the territory known as the Danelagh, or Danelaw, embracing East Anglia, and a few cities of Mercia and Northumbria.

Comparative peace being restored (for rebellions were frequent), Alfred employed himself in restoring and fortifying the dilapidated towns and cities, Lunduneberg (London) among the number, and the fortresses and castles, 883. In 893, a Danish squadron, consisting of 250 ships, appeared off the coast of Kent, while 80 more entered the Thames at Rother, where the troops were landed, and entrenchments erected for their protection. The Danes of North Umbria and East Anglia violated their oaths, and joined their kinsmen, who overran the country, and everywhere spread devastation. Alfred pursued them into Mercia, but the Danes completely distanced the armies of Alfred, and, after they had ravaged Wales, crossed the country again into Essex, and sailed round to the southern coasts, where Alfred, with his *long ships*, which he had built and officered by Frieslanders, pursued the Danish fleet, which was met cruising off the coast of Devonshire, and soon after

dispersed. Two of the vessels being cast on shore, the crews were seized, and taken before the king, who ordered them all to be hanged, as a terror to the remainder. Alfred died on All Hallows Day, October 28th, 901.

During the reign of Alfred, the building of vessels was much improved; they were longer, steadier, and swifter than those of the enemy. He was, likewise, the founder of the naval force of Britain; and under his direction, the cities and towns were much better fortified than before. The royal revenue was more exactly portioned, and at least one half distributed in acts of charity. The administration of justice was facilitated by the adoption of a new code of laws founded upon the *dooms*, or judgments, of his predecessors. England was, during his reign, divided into counties, or shires, and hundreds; trial by jury was introduced; learned men were invited over into England; schools were founded (probably the University of Oxford) in all parts of the country; education was forced, by the refusal of the king to promote the uneducated and ignorant; while the king himself was also employed in the translation of Latin works into the vernacular tongue of his English subjects.

The enterprises of the Normans were, for a time, directed against the kingdom of the Franks; but, in the meanwhile, the Danes left in England revolted, and were joined by fresh arrivals of their countrymen. The feeble successors of Alfred proved unable to resist their attacks. Three times was Ethelred compelled to purchase peace by the payment of an annual tribute of ten, sixteen, and twenty-four thousand pounds. This tax was termed *Danegeld*: the impost, however, only served to incite the Danes and Normans to the committal of fresh depredations. In 1002, the pope interposed, and procured a pacification, and Ethelred married Emma, the sister of the Duke of Normandy, out of which circumstance subsequently arose the Norman claims upon England. On the evening of the day following his marriage, Ethelred issued a cruel order for the massacre of the Danes throughout the island, November 13, 1002. This proceeding led to the complete conquest of the island by Sweyn, and his successor; Knut, or Canute.

§ 29.

ENGLAND, UNDER DANISH KINGS, 1016—1042.

Canute (Knut, 1016—1035) was the most powerful monarch of his time. He was king of Denmark and England, and afterwards of Norway and Sweden, as also of part of

Scotland, and the kingdom of Cumbria and the Isles. On the death of Ethelred (1016), the citizens and *Witan* elected Edmund Ironsides king in the place of his father, while Canute was elected by the Danes. After a short but sanguinary war, decided at Assingdune, Edmund challenged the Danish monarch to settle the dispute by single combat, when Canute declined, and agreed that they should divide the realm between them. On the death of Edmund, Canute became sole monarch. In the government of the kingdom he divided it into four distinct provinces, namely, Wessex, the chief state, governed by the sovereign; East Anglia, Mercia, and North Umbria, governed by earls. The rights and property of the Anglo-Saxons were as secure as those of the Danes. The exercise of the Pagan religion of Scandinavia was forbidden to the latter, while pilgrimages to Rome, and the founding of abbeys and monasteries, were encouraged. The esteem and confidence of the Anglo-Saxons were, at length, won by Canute, who died at Shaftesbury, respected and lamented, 1035, and was buried at Winchester. Canute intended his kingdom to be divided in the following manner: Britain to Harold, Denmark to Hardicanute, and Norway to Sweyn. The great Earl Godwin opposed this arrangement. After some disputes, the Witenagemot, or great council, elected Harold to reign over Mercia and North Umbria, while Wessex was reserved for Hardicanute of Denmark. After a short and inglorious reign, Harold expired, 1040, when the Danes as well as the English invited Hardicanute to return to Britain, and assume the crown. This he did, and so severely taxed his subjects, that money became scarce. Corn rose to an enormous price, and the clergy were obliged even to sell their chalices to meet the demands. After a short reign of two years, he expired in the midst of a revel at Clapa-hame (Clapham), 1042, and the crown again came into the hands of the Anglo-Saxons.

§ 30.

RESTORATION AND EXTINCTION OF THE ANGLO-SAXON DYNASTY, 1042—1066.

Edward (III.) the Atheling (the Confessor), only surviving son of Ethelred, had been invited over into England by Hardicanute. His recognition by the nobles was

chiefly owing to the influence of Godwin, earl of Wessex, who stipulated that Edward should marry his daughter, Editha the Fair, while he and his sons, who possessed the greater half of England, were to retain all their honours unmolested. Edward was completely swayed and governed by his Norman relatives; and as he had, during his residence in Normandy, become attached to the manners and customs of that country, he introduced and adopted them in England. The Norman language and handwriting were thought preferable to the Anglo-Saxon; the sealing of documents was also introduced from France, and appended to the parchments, in addition to the sign of the cross. These innovations excited considerable discontent; but Edward allowed his great earls to govern as they pleased, until at last they conspired against him, when they were subdued and exiled; Editha, the queen, was consigned to a monastery. In 1052, Godwin and Harold appeared off the English coasts in their ships, and were welcomed by the men of the south-eastern counties. They proceeded up the Thames to London with their adherents, who assembled, together with the army of the king, on the *Strand*,* when a negotiation was entered into, and afterwards confirmed by the Witan. Godfrey and his sons obtained an acquittal, and the restoration of their earldoms. Soon after, Godwin was choked in the act of enunciating an oath while banqueting with the king at Windsor. Harold, his son, succeeded to his earldom. Edward died 1065, having bequeathed his crown by will to his cousin, William of Normandy. Harold, conceiving himself entitled to the sovereignty, opposed the claims of William, who, with 60,000 Normans, landed on the Sussex coast, in Pevensey Bay, near Hastings, where they were met by Harold and his brothers. After a terrible conflict, one of the most sanguinary on record, Harold and his brothers were slain, and the English completely routed. The great preponderance of numbers alone decided in favour of William, who now took possession of England, and was designated “the Conqueror.”

* “An open shore on the north of the river, immediately west of the city.”

§ 31.

SPAIN.

1. Arabian Spain (to 1087) was separated from the Christian states by the Duero, and under the Omniade caliphs, or emirs, of Cordova (756—1028), enjoyed a splendid period of uninterrupted prosperity, especially during the reign of the enlightened conqueror of Mauritania, Abderrahaman II., which extended over fifty years, and that of his son, Alhakem II., who proved a worthy successor. During the governorship of Almanzor, the minister of Hixem II., the successor of Alhakem, the former possessions of the Moors in Spain were partially recovered. Leon and Barcelona fell; Navarre and Pampeluna were besieged; the troubles in Africa saved them. Almanzor hastened to quell the insurrection at Fez, which was added, as the province of Almagrab, to the Spanish caliphate. He was cut off in a battle against the Christians (998).

Mohammedan Spain (the country south of the Duero—Douro), during this period, contained a population of from twenty-five to upwards of thirty millions, while there were above eighty first class cities, each of which had its schools and its scientific and literary academies. Cordova, the capital, had a population of more than a million of inhabitants, 600 mosques, 60,000 public buildings, 80 public schools, and a university with a library of 600,000 volumes. The regal splendours of the court, and the magnificence of the royal palaces (Azzehra, with its 4,300 marble columns), seem to belong to the imaginary, rather than to the real. Agriculture, horticulture, mining, and the industrial and commercial arts (principally carried on with Constantinople), employed the vast population, which excelled in architecture and poetry, and cultivated, with great success, the sciences of astronomy, and astrology, chemistry, and medicine, and the mathematics. The schools of Cordova were filled by the Christians of the countries of the West, who resorted hither to attain a knowledge of the sciences and liberal arts.

The Moslems had, however, to struggle with the small, but formidable, kingdom of the Goths, in the mountains of Galicia, in the north, and with the Franks. At length, the viziers and governors of the principal cities and towns, taking advantage of the declining authority of the emirs, and the death of the

last Ommiade, erected petty independent governments in the various provinces. Before 1087, however, these, with the exception of Saragossa, were all subdued, either by the Christian kings of Leon and Castile, etc., or by the Emperor of Morocco, Jusef, who crossed over to Spain from Africa, to assist Mohammed against the Christians under Alphonso IV. of Castile, who was defeated at Badajos. In 1094, Jusef finally annexed the Mohammedan states of Spain to his African dominions.

2. Christian Kingdoms.—The kingdom of the Asturias (940) was founded by the Visigoths, who had been compelled by the Arabs to take refuge in the mountains of Galicia, in the north. Subsequently, when the Christians of Oviedo had subdued the Arabians, the capital was shifted to Leon, as being more central. Hence, it afterwards took the name of the kingdom of Leon, which it retained until its last king was slain while engaged in battle against the king of Castile. It was then united to the latter sovereignty, and received the title of the kingdom of Castile and Leon (1037).

a.) The Spanish March, or the territory conquered by Charlemagne, and erected into a march, had been contracted by the inroads of the Arabs. It was under his feeble successors divided into a number of petty counties, or lordships, agreeably to the German custom. Several of these, as Pampeluna and Arragon, etc., appear to have united and formed themselves into larger counties, independent of the Franconian empire; hereditary also, but acknowledging the kings of the Franks as their suzerains. The counties of Barcelona and of Navarre (864) were of this order. In 905, Sancho, the count of Pampeluna, took the title of king, with which he soon after incorporated Arragon, obtained by descent.

Sancho the Great, king of Navarre (1000—1035), conquered several other counties belonging to the Spanish march, and obtained by his marriage with the heiress of Castile that county also. For upwards of a century, in consequence of his victories over the king of Leon, whom he reduced to a state of vassalage, he united the whole of Christian Spain (excepting the independent county of Barcelona) under his dominion, which now extended from the Pyrenees to the Duero. Alphonso was just on the point of crushing the Mohammedan power in Spain (on the death of the last Ommiade emir), when death arrested him (1035). He left his kingdom to the Knights Templars, but the people elected two sovereigns for themselves. This division weakened and enfeebled the Christian power, and saved the Arabians, who maintained themselves in the Peninsula for a period of 500 years.

Assassinations and civil wars at this period raged in all the Christian states, now divided into the kingdoms of Castile and Arragon, and the county of Barcelona, or Catalonia. The princes of these three Christian states, Alphonso II. of Castile, Sancho I. of Arragon, and Raymond Berenger of Barcelona, at the end of the eleventh century, combined their forces for the purpose of putting an end to the Arabian power in Spain, and were on the point of success, having gained twenty-nine pitched battles over the Moors, when the Almoravides of Africa, having been invited to assist them, drove back the Christian armies, but subjected their fellow-countrymen of Spain to the authority of the Emperor of Morocco.

During this war, Valencia was, for a short time, in the possession of Rodrigo, or Ruy Diaz de Vivar, better known as the Cid, who, ungratefully treated by Alphonso, wrested it out of his hands, and erected it into a principality for himself (1074—1094). On his death, it was seized by the Moors.

b) Portugal.—Among the allies of Alphonso VI. against the Moors, was the Count of Besancon, of Burgundy, who received, as the price of his service, Theresa, the daughter of Alphonso, in marriage, with all he then possessed of the present kingdom of Portugal, the County of Porto Calo, between the Tajo and the Minho, as an hereditary fief of the Castilian kingdom. This supremacy, however, was thrown off in 1112, when Theresa, the widowed countess of Henry, was vanquished, in an unnatural war raised by her own son, who kept her in prison until her death. In 1147, Alphonso Henrique was raised by the *Cortes* of Lamego to the imperial dignity, and Portugal became an independent kingdom.

§ 32.

THE ARABIANS UNDER THE ABASSIDES, 750—1258.

Soon after the accession of the Abassides (753), Almanzur removed the seat of government from Damascus to the newly-built city of Baghdad, or Bagdad, situated on the western banks of the Tigris, and considerably extended his empire by his conquests over the Turcomans, and his victories over the Greeks in Asia Minor. His capital soon became the chief emporium of commerce, and the seat of the arts. In the reign of his son Mohdi, the celebrated Haroun al Raschid first appears, when, as the commander of the Mohammedan army,

he penetrated the Greek provinces of Asia Minor as far as the Hellespont. In 786, this young conqueror (the grandson of Almanzur) was called to the throne, and soon displayed an ardent love of justice and peace, and a zeal for literature and the arts equal to his valour as a commander. He opened a friendly communication with Charlemagne, and, during his reign, flourishing towns sprung up in every part of the empire, while Bagdad rivalled even Constantinople in magnificence and luxury. The reign of his son Mamun (the seventh Abasside) forms an important epoch in the history of science and literature, the cultivation of which was conspicuously patronised by the caliph, as well as by the governors of the different provinces, who imitated his example. Mamun founded colleges and libraries in the principal towns of his kingdom, as Bagdad, Bussora, Kufa, Nishabur, etc. Syrian physicians, and Hindu mathematicians and astronomers, resided at his court, by whom works were composed and written for the instruction of his subjects. This period of prosperity, however, was brief. Spain, Fez, and Tunis had already been dismembered from the unwieldy empire. The Turks, who composed the body guard of the emperor, considerably increased their power, and elected their own commander; while the Greeks were invading the provinces in the north-west in Armenia. The decay of the Abbassidian empire consisted:—

1. In the defection of the more distant, and then in the secession of the nearer provinces, which, subsequently, the great emirs, or governors, erected into independent sovereignties for themselves. In Spain, there was the caliphate of the Omniades, founded 756, in Cordova. In Africa, there were the kingdoms founded by the dynasties of the Aglabides, the Edrisides, the Fatimides, and the Morabethes; while in Asia, the Bawaihides seized Persia and Irak, and the Seljuks, under Togul Beg, in 1074, seized the caliphate of Bagdad, and soon after subdued all the petty emirs governing in Upper Asia. Scarcely, however, had the Seljuks succeeded in establishing themselves in their mighty possessions, when they again exhibited signs of dissolution and decay. Iran (Persia), Kerman, Aleppo, Damascus, Iconium, or Rum, were all erected by their respective emirs into independent states. The Atabeks reigned in Aldeschira, and the Fatimides were masters of Egypt, Syria, and Palestine: these acknowledged only the spiritual supremacy of the sultan at Bagdad, to whom, at last, was left

only the town and its environs. 2. By the admission into Bagdad of the Turkish body guard, which eventually swelled its numbers to 50,000 men. These soon exercised an uncontrolled influence in the state, and subsequently deposed and elected the caliphs according to their own pleasure. 3. By the cruel and oppressive conduct of *weak* and *luxurious* governors, to whom the administration of the affairs of the provinces were left, and, since 936, to the arbitrary conduct of the Emirs al Omrah, or Commanders of Commanders, an office intrusted to Turkish emirs, and whose powers were more extensive than those of the grand vizier; they even officiated in the grand mosque of Bagdad, instead of the caliph, who was at length stripped of all temporal power, and remained only grand Iman, or sovereign pontiff of the Mussulman faith.

THIRD PERIOD.

The Period of the Crusades, 1096—1273.

§ 33.

GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF EUROPE DURING THE PERIOD OF THE CRUSADES.

1) Arabian Spain, with the Balearic Isles, first under the government of the Almoravides (Morabethes), who came over from Africa, and, after a duration of fifty years, were displaced by the dynasty of the Almohades, who also immigrated from Africa, and the Balears, which they had first possessed themselves of.

2) Christian Kingdoms in Spain. a) Leon separated again from b) Castile, which, by conquests over the Moors, and the tracts of territory wrested from the kingdom of Navarre, became an extensive and powerful kingdom. c) Navarre, which not only lost a portion of its possessions to Castile, but also d) Arragon, which was founded out of its territory, and united (by marriage) to Barcelona, and by conquest to Saragossa and Valencia. e) The County of Porto Calo (Portugal), which was first bestowed on Count Henry of Burgundy by Alphonso VI., and, at length, when it was extended by conquests over the Arabians as far as the Upper Tajo, was raised into a kingdom, and embraced the Algarves.

3) Of France.—The greater portion of this country belonged to foreign kings, namely, a) the whole of the western part, from the coasts on the Channel, as far as the Pyrenees, belonged to the monarchy of England (§ 39): b) the kingdom of Burgundy, or Arles (Arelat), belonged to the German emperors (see § 24): and c) the southern portion had, either by treaty, purchase, or marriage, come into the possession of the kings of Arragon.

4) England, by conquest, obtained dominion over the eastern coasts of Ireland, southern Scotland (Cumberland and Northumberland), and South Wales.

5) Scotland—kingdom of the Scots; part lost to England.

6) Ireland.—The eastern portion belonged to England; the remaining portion ruled over by independent native princes.

7) The Roman German Empire, which extended from the banks of the Rhone, as far as the shores of the Baltic Sea; and from the North Sea, over Italy and the islands on its coasts.

8) Norway, extending to the White Sea, with its tributary provinces Greenland, and the re-conquered Kingdom of Man, including the Orkney Islands.

9) Sweden, which, during this period, comprised the two kingdoms of Svoland and Gottland, which were lastingly united, and the conquests in Finland.

10) Denmark, to which South Sweden already belonged, attained its utmost limits when, in the thirteenth century, it obtained by conquest the principality of Rugen, Pomerania, Slavina (Mecklenburg), Holstein, and the coasts of Esthland.

11) Iceland, republic of (Danes).

12) Poland, which embraced at the commencement of this period, Eastern Pommerania, Silesia, Moravia, and Northern Hungary, by unsuccessful wars between the Piast princes lost all excepting Pomerellia and Silesia, besides Poland proper, which latter was divided into five principalities or duchies, under the sovereign.

13) Prussia, under the Pagans.

14) Russia, since Yaroslav, had been divided (1054) into six different principalities, subject to the authority of the Grand Duke of Kiev. Subsequently, in the west, the independent principality of Galitzia, or Russia (Halles), was formed.

15) Hungary was considerably increased by the conquest of Croatia, Dalmatia, and Bosnia.

16) The Cumans, Uzes, or Polowzians, had taken possession of the territories of the Petchenegans in Southern Russia.

17) Servia was governed by native princes, chiefly subject to Constantinople.

18) A new Wallachian or Bulgarian Kingdom, between the Danube and the Hæmus Mountains, was founded, 1116.

19) The Byzantine Empire retained in Asia Minor only the west and north-western portions, in consequence of the advance of the Seljukian Turks.

§ 34.

THE CRUSADES, 1096—1270.

Christianity having diffused itself over the several provinces of the Roman empire, pilgrimages to the Holy Sepulchre began to take place. At length a magnificent church was erected on the supposed spot by Constantine the Great, who himself, in his later years, embraced the Christian faith. The number of the pilgrims, to whom a hospitable reception was given, considerably increased, so that the commerce of the East received an additional impulse, and was much augmented. At length, Jerusalem was conquered by the Arabs (630), who, to preserve the trade of the Syrian ports, encouraged rather than opposed the devotional spirit of the pilgrims; but when the city came under the dominion of the Seljukian Turks, who were a barbarous and ferocious people, the pilgrims were subjected to every species of insult and oppression, and were compelled to pay a heavy tax for the exercise of the privilege. This, however, did not damp the ardour of the Christians of Western Europe, who continued to visit the holy shrine even in greater numbers than before. The lamentable accounts which the pilgrims, on their return to Europe, gave of the outrages to which they were exposed, excited general indignation, and originated the idea of rendering Palestine again a Christian kingdom.

This was an enterprise which united the whole body of Christians in Western Europe into one common bond, quite opposed to all which had yet been exhibited among them. There was nothing isolated, nothing selfish,—it was the sacrifice of all in the endeavour to effect a

common object. As the first impulse originated with the church, so the church took care to possess itself of the greater share of the benefits derived from these undertakings. Its wealth was immensely augmented by the purchase, at a cheap rate, of secular dignities, and the hereditary estates of the nobility and gentry, who were urged to take part in the enterprise.

The First Crusade, 1096—1100.

The complaints of the Eastern Christians reached Europe through Peter the Hermit (of Amiens), who, after his return from Jerusalem, traversed the whole of Italy, France, and Germany, preaching everywhere, and representing, in the liveliest colours, the cruelties and profanations of which he himself had been an eye-witness. His fanatical zeal found powerful supporters in Gregory VII. and Urban II., the latter of whom repaired to France, and convoked the Councils of Piacenza and Clermont, where he pathetically harangued the assemblies, who resolved on the Holy War. To encourage the multitude to enrol their names in the sacred militia, a full pardon was granted for sins past, and a plenary indulgence to sins for the future, with a final entrance into the kingdom of heaven. Henceforward the pulpits of Europe echoed with exhortations to the crusades, and multitudes of every rank and condition assumed the sign of the cross on the right shoulder.

Early in 1096, detached bands of crusaders from France, Italy, and Lorraine, set out for the Holy Land, and reached Hungary and Bulgaria, where, as they pillaged and destroyed the towns and cities through which they passed, they were, to the number of 200,000, cut to pieces by the enraged inhabitants. Peter the Hermit, in his vehicle drawn by asses, preceded by Walter the Penniless, surnamed Lord of Lack-land (Habernichts), and another body of adventurers (600,000?), however, reached Nicæa, where they were nearly annihilated by the Turks. To these unwarlike, undisciplined bands of marauders succeeded regular armies, commanded by powerful princes, as Godfrey de Bouillon, duke of Lower Lorraine (and his brothers Baldwin and Eustacius), the dukes of Normandy and Provence (the former the brother of the king of England), Count Raymond of Toulouse, Bohemund, prince of Tarentum, and his nephew, Tancred (1096). The armies, under their respective leaders, took different routes. One division, under the French nobles, preferred the

route by Italy, and wintered at Bari, Brindisi, and Otranto; others, whose rendezvous was at Chalcedon, in Bithynia, pursued their way through Hungary. On their arrival at Constantinople, the emperor Alexius obliged them to yield their allegiance, and extorted from them a promise of restoration of all the lands they should conquer from the Mohammedans (once the territory of the empire). Nicæa was the first city they attacked: the Turks were repulsed, and the capital of Roum fell into the hands of the crusaders. The fall of Dorylæum, in the Gorgonean valley, in Bithynia, opened the way to Syria, through the kingdom of Iconium. Scarcely had the strong city of Antioch fallen into their hands (by the treachery of Pyrrhus), after an immense sacrifice of human life, and a siege of nine months, when they were surrounded on all sides by a numerous Turkish army. The crusaders, shut up in the town, endured the most extreme sufferings, arising from sickness and want of provisions. At length, by a dexterous movement on the part of a priest of Provence, Peter Bartholomeus, who pretended to have discovered the head of the lance which pierced the Saviour's side, their courage was raised. The lance, borne on a pole, was carried before the army, and a desperate sally was made from the gates of the city. The Turks could not withstand the impetuosity of the crusaders, and were entirely routed, 1098. A Christian principality was established under Bohemund of Tarento (now prince of Antioch). In the meanwhile, Baldwin had taken Edessa, which had been erected into a county, having Baldwin for its head. Many of the crusaders remained in the towns of Antioch and Edessa, which they garrisoned; a large number had fallen in battle, while hundreds had perished by sickness and for want of provisions: hence not more than 20,000 vigorous foot soldiers, and 1,500 horse, could be mustered to proceed to Jerusalem, which the Fatimide caliph of Egypt had just recovered from the Seljukian Turks (1095). The holy city sustained a siege of thirty-nine days, and after an assault of two days, the outer wall was broken down, and the inner walls were mounted, when the crusaders descended the ladders into the streets, and massacred, without mercy, men, women, and even infants. At least 70,000 were cruelly slaughtered, after which the conquerors "hastened to the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, to humble themselves before the Lord!" Jerusalem fell on the 15th day of July, 1099, and Godfrey

of Bouillon was elected the first sovereign of Jerusalem and protector of the holy shrine; but he refused to wear a crown of gold, or to assume the regal title, where the Saviour of men had worn one of thorns; hence he retained the title of duke only. A dispute having arisen between Godfrey and Raymond, the latter took his departure for the countries of the Jordan, where he founded the County of Tripolis.

In less than a month after the conquest of the holy city, a large Egyptian army, despatched by the Fatimide caliph, under the vizier Afdal, made its appearance in Palestine. It was said to consist of 140,000 (?) men, 100,000 of which were horse. The armies met in the plain between Joppa and Ascalon, where at least 30,000 Saracens were slain, and the rest completely routed. Godfrey was not long spared to govern the newly established kingdom. In the year 1100, returning to Joppa, to receive the son of the Doge of Venice, who had just arrived, he was seized with an illness which speedily terminated his life. Godfrey was succeeded by his brother, Baldwin I., prince of Edessa, who did not hesitate to assume the imperial dignity, and was crowned at Bethlehem. Assisted by the republics of Italy (Genoa, Pisa, and Venice), Baldwin considerably extended the Christian kingdom, which at first only embraced Jerusalem, Joppa, and about twenty hamlets, but now included the maritime towns of Accon (Accho), Tripoli, Berytus, etc. Under the fourth king of Jerusalem, Foulk (1131—1142), the kingdom attained its extreme limits, and extended from the Upper Euphrates, along the Syrian coast as far as the northern extremity of the Red Sea, with several cities situated on the borders of the Syrian desert. There were four Christian states, namely:—the kingdom of Jerusalem, the county of Tripolis, the principality of Antioch, and the county of Edessa, which last three the rulers held as vassals under the king.

The Second Crusade, 1147—1149.

The Egyptian caliphs made repeated attempts to recover the Holy Land, and in 1142, Edessa fell into the hands of the celebrated Zenghi, the governor of Aleppo, who, during the absence of the young Count Joscelin, suddenly besieged it with a large army, and took it by storm. The inhabitants were put to death; the garrison only was allowed to retire. The news of this disaster reaching Europe, St. Bernard, abbot of

Clairvaux, preached up another crusade, and persuaded Louis VII. of France, and Conrad III. of Germany, to assume the cross. The number engaged in this crusade was probably not less than 300,000 persons, who were separated into two grand divisions. The same ravages and disorder which had disgraced the first crusade, occurred also in this. The army under Conrad, being led into the defiles of the mountains of Asia Minor by their guides, the Sultan of Iconium marched upon them, and cut them to pieces. Conrad, with scarcely a tenth of his army, escaped to the French army at Nicæa, and returned to Constantinople. Louis pursued his march, but narrowly escaped a defeat at Laodicea, where he was attacked by the Turkish forces. Subsequently, the two kings proceeded along the coast of Pamphylia, where they embarked, with a portion of the army, for Antioch; the other division of the army proceeded to Tarsus (Tarsus), and on the way nearly perished through sickness and want, and the repeated attacks of the enemy. The two monarchs reached the Holy Land, and, in league with Baldwin III., proceeded to lay siege to Damascus (giving up, for the present, the reconquering of Edessa). The attempt proved unsuccessful, and the two kings, Louis and Conrad, returned to their own dominions.

The Third Crusade, 1189—1193.

The dynasty of the Fatimides was displaced by Saladin, the successful general of Nureddin, on whose death he caused himself to be elected Sultan (1171). Having vanquished Egypt and subdued Assyria, Armenia, and Arabia, he revived the claims of the sultans of Egypt upon Palestine and Syria, which provinces he had completely hemmed in by his conquests. The Christian princes, divided by mutual jealousies, soon fell a prey to the arms of Saladin, who defeated the Christians in several engagements. The battle fought (1187) at Hittim (near Tiberias) was decisive: the Christians were completely vanquished, and the king of Jerusalem (Guy of Lusignan) was taken prisoner, with many noble knights. Many of the cities opened their gates to the conqueror, and Jerusalem itself surrendered, after sustaining a siege of fourteen days, having been thirty-eight years in the hands of the Christians.

The loss of the holy city rekindled the zeal of the Christians in the west, and the three most powerful sovereigns in Europe, Frederick I. (Barbarossa), now seventy years of age; Philip

Augustus, king of France; and Richard Cœur de Lion of England, with the flower of their chivalry, entered upon the third crusade. The Emperor Frederick pursued the route through Hungary and the Greek states, achieving a series of triumphs in his march. On his arrival in the regions of the Taurus, he met the Saracen armies, under the Sultan of Iconium, whose troops he repeatedly vanquished, and, at length, seized their capital city, Cogni (Iconium). The emperor then overran Cilicia and Armenia, and would no doubt have recovered the holy city, had not death suddenly terminated his career, while bathing in a heated state in the Calycadnos (Selef), in Seleucia. The command of the army devolved upon his son, the Duke of Bavaria, who, by the time he reached the Syrian coast, had lost the greater part of his troops, through pestilence, famine, and desertion. On arriving before Acre, the duke Frederick, with his slender army, assisted the Christians in the siege of the city, which proved too strong for them; and while here, he instituted the order of "The Teutonic Knights," soon after which, before the fall of the city, he died of the plague (1191). In the meanwhile, the two kings, Philip and Richard, had arrived by sea, and joined the besiegers before Acre, which soon surrendered, in the third year of the siege (1191). Philip and Richard agreed to divide the spoils, even to half of the city, and the standard of either monarch was planted in his own portion. The Duke of Austria attempting to plant his standard, the officers of Richard plucked it down, when Richard trampled upon it, an act which the Austrian duke never forgave. A dispute arising between Richard and Philip respecting the division of territory, and the election of the king of Jerusalem, Philip returned to France, having first solemnly assured the English monarch that he would make no attempt upon his French possessions. Richard advanced upon Ascalon, and was met on the way by Saladin, who, after a deadly conflict, withdrew, leaving 8,000 Moslems dead upon the field of battle. Ascalon and Joppa were razed, by order of Saladin, in order that they might not fall into the hands of the Christians. Richard pursued the route to Jerusalem; but on the arrival of the army, it was discovered that they had not the means of laying the siege; and Richard, finding, from reports which reached him, that his presence in his own dominions was indispensable, concluded a truce with the Sultan for three years. It was agreed that the

coast from Acre to Joppa should remain in the hands of the Christians, while the free pilgrimage to Jerusalem was also secured. Before the departure of Richard, he conferred the sovereignty of Cyprus upon Guy de Lusignan, whose posterity retained it for upwards of two centuries. On his way home (1192), accompanied by his two queens, and his splendid retinue, a storm overtook the vessels, which were dispersed. Richard, at length, reached Venice, where he was arrested by Leopold, duke of Austria, and thrown into prison. The stern emperor, Henry v., afterwards took the royal captive under his care, whom he transferred to Trifels. One hundred and fifty thousand marks of silver were demanded for his ransom, which his subjects willingly paid, although the plate of the church and monasteries throughout the kingdom, had to be sold to meet the demand (1194).

The Fourth Crusade, 1202—1204.

Fresh bands of Germans and French were sent out by the Emperor Henry vi., which, having reached Syria by the way of Constantinople, succeeded in recovering Saida (Sidon), Tyre, and Berytus (Beirut), when the death of the emperor in Sicily took place.

Pope Innocent not having succeeded in prevailing upon any of the Christian monarchs of the West to undertake another crusade, appealed to the greater barons, when the Marquis of Montferrat, the Duke of Flanders, and some French barons, undertook a crusade against Egypt, then considered as the key to the Holy Land. The ships were furnished by the Venetians; and as the crusaders could not make up the sum required for the hire of the vessels, they agreed to render military service. Their first efforts were directed against Zara, which had revolted from the Venetians, and joined the Hungarians. The city fell, and the crusaders were on the way to Palestine, when they were earnestly entreated by the son of the deposed Greek emperor (Isaac Angelus), whose eyes had been put out by his brother Alexius, to replace his father on the throne. Indemnity in money to any amount was agreed to be given, as well as the reunion of the Greek and Latin churches, etc. To this proposal the Venetians and the crusaders agreed, and proceeded to Constantinople. A short siege was sufficient to secure the restoration of the blinded monarch, with whom Alexius, his son, was associated; but the demands of the Venetians agreed to by Alexius could not be complied

with, and the Venetians abandoned the Greeks to themselves. Scarcely had they departed, however, when the Greeks slew the emperor, and his son Alexius, and placed a favourite *Mourzoufle* on the throne. The crusaders immediately returned; and again besieged the capital, which soon after fell. Having slain the usurper, they elected a new emperor in the person of Baldwin, the count of Flanders, and thus founded the Latin Empire, and, for a time, effected the union of the Greek and Latin churches (1204). The capital (Constantinople), conquered and taken for the first time since the seat of the empire had been transferred to it, was plundered without mercy; its finest monuments and buildings were destroyed, while more than half of the city was consumed by the flames. Its works of art were either broken down or mutilated, or, as in the case of the four celebrated brazen horses of Lysippus, carried away to Venice. Baldwin received the province of Thracia with the royal dignity, and the supremacy over all the remaining states. To the Venetians were given one-fourth and a half of the whole conquered territory, embracing the ports of the Adriatic, Ægean, and Black seas, Greece, with the Cyclades, and Sporades. Bonifacius, the marquis of Montferrat, received Candia (in 1207 sold to the Venetians), and all belonging to the empire beyond the Bosphorus (Macedonia), with a portion of Greece, erected into the kingdom of Thessaloniki. Other chiefs had also their shares of the dismembered empire, but they all held them as the vassals of Baldwin.

In the midst of this general overthrow, several of the Greek princes (the Comneni) made efforts to retain some portions of the empire. Theodore Lascaris founded the kingdom embracing part of Bithynia, Lydia, Caria, etc., having for its capital Nicæa (1206). About the same period, Alexius and David Comnenus founded in Pontus the kingdom of Trebizond; and a short time after, Michael Comnenus founded an independent state, embracing Epirus, Arcania, Ætolia, etc. The most powerful of these sovereigns was the Nicæan emperor, Theodore Lascaris, whose successors found little difficulty, with the aid of the Genoese (the rivals of the Venetians), in resuming their supremacy over the Latin emperors. Driven from city to city, the Latins were, at last, hemmed up in the capital. In 1261, it was, under Michael Paleologus, besieged and captured by the Genoese. Baldwin II. fled to Negropont,

and thence to Italy. Thus ended the Latin empire, after a brief duration of fifty-seven years.

The Crusade of Frederick II., 1228—1229.

The unremitting exertions of pope Innocent III. to incite another crusade for the recovery of Palestine out of the hands of the Turks, proved fruitless and unsuccessful.

In 1212, incredible as it may now appear, a number of boys or youths in France and Germany undertook to execute what kings and princes had failed to accomplish, the deliverance of the holy city. This Crusade of the Children was headed by a fanatical youth, named Stephen of Vendome, who gave out that the Saviour had appeared to him, and given his authority to preach the cross. Philip of France, under the sanction of the university of Paris, issued an edict to compel them to return to their homes, which but few obeyed. The same spirit spread rapidly through the German states, and thousands of youths of all ranks crossed the Alps, during the passage of which hundreds perished. The remainder entered Italy, where they remained, while a few, after enduring many hardships, returned to their native country. 30,000 young French crusaders, however, proceeded to Marseilles, to embark for Palestine. Two slave masters awaited their arrival, and engaged to convey them to Syria without charge. The simple youths accepted the offer, and embarked on board the vessels. Two were lost in the Mediterranean, and all on board perished. Five, instead of sailing to Syria, landed the hapless pilgrims in Egypt, where they were all sold in the slave market of Alexandria. These Marseillaise slave merchants were subsequently convicted of a plot to betray Frederick II. into the hands of a Saracen minister, and executed.

The so-called Fifth Crusade was undertaken by Andrew II. of Hungary, and terminated disastrously. Having joined the kings of Cyprus and Jerusalem, they besieged the city of Tabor. While before it, the besiegers were overtaken by despair and famine, and the armies were compelled to divide into small bodies, to save themselves from utter destruction. The Cypriot king died, and Andrew returned to his distracted kingdom. The next proceeding of the council of the titular king of Jerusalem was to direct the siege of Damietta (in Egypt), which was accomplished, and the sultan's army sent to its relief vanquished. Soon after, assistance arrived from Portugal of a fleet of ships and a large number of troops, under Cardinal Albino, who, as the pope's officer, took the command out of the hands of the king (John of Brienne), and soon after lost the fleet, which was burned by the Saracens, and the possession of the city, which was lost to the sultan (1221). Upon the news of this defeat reaching the pope Honorius III., he, with greater vehemence, urged upon the emperor Frederick II.

the necessity of his fulfilling the vow made on his accession, and renewed at his coronation, to take up the cross. The internal affairs of Germany and Italy were such as to demand the presence of the emperor, and hence his departure was delayed until the signing of the treaty of St. Germano. The emperor had scarcely assembled his army, when he was seized with sickness, and compelled yet longer to delay. The pontiff (Gregory ix.), believing it to be mere pretence, excommunicated him. In 1228, Frederick embarked, without even seeking absolution, and landed with only a hundred knights at Ptolemais. So indisposed were the crusaders to cooperate with one under sentence of excommunication, that the emperor was compelled to open the campaign as he could. What, however, could not probably have been obtained by force of arms, was secured by a treaty with the sultans of Damascus and Damietta; Bethlehem, Nazareth, Sidon, and other towns, were restored, and the free admission to the holy city and the temple guaranteed for ten years. Frederick, after the signing of this treaty, proceeded to Jerusalem, the crown of which devolved upon him, as the son-in-law of John de Brienne. On the refusal of the patriarch to crown him, he being an excommunicated person, he placed the diadem on his own head, and immediately set sail for Italy, to defend his territories, which had been assailed by the pope during his absence.

The Sixth Crusade, 1248.

A violation of the truce by a band of pilgrims under the guidance of the king of Navarre, again occasioned the loss of the holy city (1239). In 1240, however, it was again restored to Richard, duke of Cornwall, in whose hands it remained, until (in 1244) the Mongols from Upper Asia came down in such swarms upon the Chowaresmian or Carismian Turks of Khorassan, that the latter were compelled to flee before them, and seek another territory. They therefore pressed upon the Mameluke Turks of Syria and Palestine, and overran their country; Jerusalem was pillaged and burned: but the Christians still retained some important possessions on the coast, as Tyre, Accon, etc. About the same time, Louis ix. of France undertook a crusade, in fulfilment of a sacred vow made when lying upon a bed of sickness. Louis proceeded in advance of the main army to Cyprus, from which island he set sail in the following year (1249), with 1,800 vessels, for Damietta. The army of the sultan awaited their arrival, to prevent their

landing: a report that the sultan was dead having been circulated throughout the Turkish camp, they set fire to the warehouses, and evacuated the city, which was immediately taken possession of by the crusaders. On the arrival of the Count of Poitiers, Louis proceeded to Cairo, where he engaged in two desperate battles at Mansurah with the armies of the sultan. Such was the slaughter, that the Nile was choked by the corpses of the slain, and contagious fevers broke out among them, arising from the putrefaction of the water. The Christian army was compelled to retreat, followed by the Mamelukes, who at length made the principal part of his army, the knights, and even the king himself, prisoners. 800,000 pieces of gold was the ransom fixed, and the surrender of Damietta; out of 2,800 knights, only 100 remained on the landing of the king at Accon, who spent vast sums of money in fortifying the ports of Cæsarea, Jaffa, Sidon, and Accon. On the news of the death of his mother (Blanche), who had carried on the regency during his absence, Louis returned to France.

The Seventh Crusade, 1270.

Bendoadar, a Mameluke chieftain, having been raised to the sultanate of Egypt on the assassination of Malek el Kamel, he determined to recover the cities yet in the hands of the Christians; Cæsarea, Sidon, and Jaffa fell, one after the other. Antioch was besieged, 27,000 of its inhabitants were massacred, and 100,000 sold into slavery (1268). In 1291, Accon (Acre), the last Christian possession, fell to the Mameluke sultan, who took possession of it with 30,000 troops, twenty-one years after the death of Louis.

In 1268, King Louis IX., conceiving that he had not carried out the intentions of his war in his former crusade, on the news of the fall of Antioch resolved to undertake another. The armament, when complete, met at the port of Aigues-Mortes (1270), where, in consequence of serious delays in embarking, thousands perished by sickness and famine. The crusaders, fearing the consequences of a tedious voyage to Egypt or Palestine, influenced the king to attack the Mohammedans of Tunis, where they hoped to enrich themselves with the spoils of the city, which abounded in wealth. Charles of Anjou, king of Sicily, also seconded the demand of the irritated knights, probably hoping to regain his lost ascendancy over the province, once tributary to Sicily. This king landed in the neighbourhood of ancient Carthage, when the want of water, and the heat from the burning sands, produced a pestilence, which swept away thousands of the invaders, among whom were the papal legate, the Count of Nevers, and the king himself, whose bones were

conveyed to Paris, and buried at St. Denis. Philip, the heir-apparent, recovered of his sickness, and on the arrival of reinforcements, under the command of his uncle, Charles of Anjou, the king of the Tunisians (in a state of ferment and revolt) agreed to liberate the Christian captives, and to pay 200,000 ounces of gold towards defraying the expenses of the expedition, while an annual tribute of 20,000 doubloons was guaranteed to the king of Sicily.

The Influence of the Crusades.

The crusades were an event in which all the countries of Europe combined for the first time to effect one common object; the cause was one, and one sentiment pervaded all who engaged in them. At first the movement was individual; crowds of the French and German populace, with a sprinkling of the peasantry of Italy, Spain, and England, alone taking any part in them. Their principal leaders consisted of a fanatical hermit, and a few obscure knights and esquires. Afterwards the great feudal nobility embraced the cause, the barons of France and England assumed the cross with ardour, and pursued the wearisome route to Palestine; and, lastly, the sovereigns of Europe placed themselves at the head of the crusading armies, and invested them with nationality. The crusades were a continuation of the struggle between Christianity and Mohammedanism. Hitherto the conflict had been carried on only in Europe; at the period of the crusades it extended to Asia. The duration of the Moslem caliphats in Spain was brief and transitory, and the Christian kingdoms and principalities founded in Asia were still more so. The religious chivalry, however, which they excited, considerably influenced the manners of the feudal chiefs who engaged in them, and tended to preserve Christendom from the fanatical ambition inculcated by the Moslem faith.

One of the principal effects of the crusades was the aggrandisement of the Roman pontiffs, whose power was supreme. Papal legates were despatched to all the courts of Europe to excite subjects, and to compel kings and princes to take up the badge of the cross. The church itself was taxed, under the pretext of defraying the expenses of the expedition; while legates sent out from Rome filled up the bishoprics and abbeys belonging to those who were absent in the wars with the friends and partisans of the reigning pontiff. The revenues of the church, too, were considerably augmented by the numerous advowsons which took place, as well as by the purchase (at a nominal value) of the estates of those who had

a desire to assume the cross, but were without the means of defraying the expenses of the expedition. The influence of the crusades upon monarchy or royalty was varied. In England, and partially in Germany, the great feudatories took advantage of the absence of the monarch to extend their own domains, and to consolidate their individual interests. In France it was otherwise; there the royal domains were augmented by the addition of the lapsed fiefs of the crusaders who had died without issue, and the purchase of others, belonging to those who wished to engage in the enterprise. To those sovereigns whose sole desire was conquest, the crusades became the means of considerably increasing their power, and extending their boundaries. In Spain, the Christians won from the Mohammedans of Grenada the greater part of the caliphate. The Danes subdued the Slavonian tribes on the shores of the Baltic. Sweden obtained Finland, Nyland, Helsingeland, and Jamptland, and partially subdued the Esthonians; while the heathen Prussians were nearly extirpated by the dukes of Massovia, and the Teutonic knights, who shared the conquered territory.

With the crusades commenced the use of surnames, as well as of armorial bearings, and the science of heraldry. Among the innumerable masses from all the various nations of Europe, it was necessary to have marks or symbols by which to distinguish particular nations, or to point out their respective leaders. Coats of arms were therefore emblazoned on their national standards, while the barons, the knights, and the esquires, had them painted on their shields. The crusades introduced also tournaments, jousts, tilts, festive chivalry, or a sort of mimic warfare, in which the combatants displayed at once their skill and their magnificence.

1) To the same period belongs also the institution of religious and military orders, the most important of which was the order of the Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, called afterwards the Order of Malta, founded by some merchants of Amalfi at Jerusalem (1048). There was at first only the church, in which a Latin or Romish litany was performed. Afterwards there was founded a Benedictine convent, dedicated to St. Mary, and a hospital, consecrated to St. John, for the reception of sick and necessitous pilgrims. In a short period, it became immensely rich by the numerous donations of lands and seignories, both in Europe and

Palestine. One of its governors, a Frenchman, formed with his brethren a distinct congregation, and adopted a certain habit, which consisted of a black mantle, decorated with a white cross. The conditions imposed upon its members consisted of the three vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, to which was afterwards added a fourth vow, to take up arms against the infidels. In 1120, the members of the order were divided into three classes: a) priests and chaplains; b) knights, who, in addition to the priestly habit, wore arms and a coat of mail; c) serving brethren, who were charged with the care of the sick pilgrims, and likewise in the capacity of soldiers. This order was at length diffused over the whole of Europe, and was at first governed by a *master*, but in 1100, Raymond du Puy took the title of *grand master*. After the final loss of Palestine (1291), the order settled in the island of Cyprus. From thence they proceeded to Rhodes, which they took from the infidel Turks (1310). In this latter island they remained until 1522, when they were driven out by Soliman the Great. In 1530, the Emperor Charles v. (of Spain) presented them with the isles of Malta, Gozo, and Comino, on condition that they became his allies against the infidel Turks and the pirates of Barbary. They now adopted the title of "Knights of Malta." Of these possessions they were deprived by Buonaparte in 1798, and in 1800 they were finally lost to the English:

On the loss of Malta, the emperor Paul of Russia assumed the dignity of grand master, hoping thereby to gain possession of the island, and thus to obtain a footing in the Mediterranean. This, however, the English successfully resisted, in spite of the stipulations proposed by the treaty of Amiens. After the death of Paul, the grand masters continued to be elected by the brethren of the order, who, on the loss of Malta, resided first at Catania, and in 1831 removed to Rome. By the influence of Austria, the order recovered a considerable portion of its possessions in other countries, while in all the Austrian states full restitution was made.

The order of the Knights Templars was nearly coeval with that of St. John. Its first founders were nine French knights, who, in 1118, combined for the protection of the pilgrims against the attacks of the banditti of the deserts and the mountains, the Bedouin Arabs, who waylaid the pilgrims on the unfrequented roads. They received their name from their residence, which was the palace of Baldwin, the king of Jerusalem, built near the temple of Solomon. In addition to the triple vow of the knights of St. John, they took upon themselves an oath to maintain a free passage and safe

conduct for the pilgrims. They were divided into three classes —a) the knights proper, taken from the descendants of the nobility, and who wore at first only a plain white habit, but afterwards an octagonal cross of a red colour embroidered upon it; b) the priests and chaplains, who superintended or had the management of the spiritual and domestic arrangements of the order; and c) the serving brethren, who did the household work, and also attended upon the superior or proper knights in war. This order soon extended beyond the boundaries of Palestine, and spread over the Spanish peninsula and France. On the loss of the Holy Land to the Turks, like the knights of St. John, they fled to the island of Cyprus for shelter, where they remained for a while, and then took up their residence in France. In the reign of Philip, on the accusation of two ex-Templars, they were all seized in one day, and thrown into prison (1302). After examination before commissioners, permitted to subject the accused to torture, during which many revolting circumstances, strengthened by their own confessions, were confirmed, they were put to death by the most cruel tortures that could be invented. The grand master, James Molay, who was enticed to France from Cyprus, was, with fifty-four others (who, like himself, had denied before Philip their former admissions), roasted alive before a slow fire; not one of the number, even in the midst of his excruciating agonies, would purchase remission by again recriminating his order. The persecution extended throughout Europe, and at length, in opposition to the proceedings of many provincial synods beyond the French territory, the pope (who acted in the transaction with Philip iv. of France) issued from his pontifical seat at Avignon an order for their abolition. Their property went to the king, who for five years was suffered by Clement to enjoy it unmolested; after which he issued his decree for its annexation to the order of the Knights Hospitallers.

The order of the Teutonic Knights, according to the most probable accounts, took its rise in the camp before Accon or Ptolemais, where some citizens of Bremen and Lubecka created a temporary asylum with the sails of their ships for the relief of the numerous sick and wounded German pilgrims. Soon after, being joined by a number of influential knights, they were formed into a religious establishment, under the Hohenstaufen duke, Frederick of Suabia, and took the vow of consecration to the service of the sick, as also to the defence of

the Holy Land against the infidels. This order was known by the name of the Teutonic Knights of St. Mary of Jerusalem, and received its confirmation from pope Calixtus III. (1192), who directed it to be governed by the same rules as the Knights of St. John, as regarded the visitation of the sick, while in relation to chivalry or knighthood, the order of the Templars was to be its model. The brethren were to be exclusively of the Teutonic or Germanic race, and those who were knights assumed a black habit, with a white mantle, adorned with a black cross, edged with silver. There were also serving brethren, and subsequently chaplains, or priests. The first residence of the order was at Accon, where they were governed by a grand master. Under their fourth grand master, Herman of Salza, who was elevated by Frederick II. to the dignity of a German sovereign, the order became possessed of considerable wealth, besides immense territorial possessions in the East and West, Italy, Hungary, the Netherlands, and Germany, and the ardour for crusades against the infidel Turks of Palestine abated, and the last Christian possession fell into the hands of the Mamelukes; the knights of the order accepted the offer of Conrad, the duke of Mazovia, to receive Culm Land, and the territory of Lockbau, as payment for assisting him against the heathen Prussians (1233). This involved them in an exterminating warfare of fifty years' duration, during which they were assisted by large bands of the crusaders, who had been driven out of the Holy Land. Their conquests were distinguished by wise and judicious arrangements; as they gained upon the territories of their enemies, castles and forts were erected, which they garrisoned, and cities and towns were formed and peopled with German citizens, as Culm, Thorn, and Marienwerder. In 1237, the Knights of Christ, or Sword Bearers, confirmed by Innocent III. (1204), finding themselves too weak to oppose singly the heathens of Livonia, amalgamated with the Teutonic Order, and were governed by a general or provincial master, termed *Heermeister*, or *Landmeister*. Strengthened by the union, the heathen Prussians suffered considerably, and at length were cut off rather than subdued, and their country fell into the hands of their conquerors. The principal seat of the order had been at Accon for nearly a century, but when that city fell into the hands of the Egyptian sultan in 1291, it was, under the grand master (Conrad of Feuchtwagen) removed to

Venice; but when, on the taking of the city of Ferrà, the Venetians were excommunicated by the pope, the chief seat of the order was removed to Marienburg, in Prussia. In 1528, in consequence of a change in their religious sentiments (first embraced by their grand master, Albert of Brandenburg), they transferred their principal residence to Mergentheim, in Franconia.

A fourth order of Hospitallers was that of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem; at first only a medical order, and confined to the cure of lepers, up to the period of the crusades confined to the Asiatics, but subsequently spread over Europe as a plague. In process of time the order became military, and under the patronage of St. Louis of France took up their abode at Boigny, near Orleans. Subsequently, the pope, Gregory XIII., united them with the order of St. Maurice, and Henry IV. with that of Our Lady of Mount Carmel.

Other orders were spread over Italy, Spain, and Portugal, but these four served as models and examples for all the rest. To such establishments we may probably trace the consolidation no less than the formation of the various orders or ranks of nobility throughout Europe. While the residences of the knights were in Palestine, they formed a sort of standing army for the defence of the Christian possessions.

The services of the knighthood were rendered on horseback; hence one of its regulations was, that the son of a knight, while being a squire, should learn how to take care of a horse. The profession was highly honourable and dignified, and probably existed in Gaul at a very early period; it was not, however, until the time of the crusades that it existed in any degree of splendour, when the art of forging arms had progressed, and the warrior knight was so incased in iron or bronze that the steel of the enemy could scarcely find an entrance. In general, knighthood was only open to the noble possessors of fiefs, or those who had the right to become such by inheritance or otherwise; but in some of the kingdoms of the North, and France, there was an exception, and citizens were permitted to be enrolled among their number. From France and Germany, where the greater feudal lords served always on horseback, the profession of chivalry spread over all the countries of Europe. The order of knighthood (*ordo militaris*) consisted of three degrees or ranks: first, there was the page, from seven to fourteen years of age, when he became an esquire (*armiger famillus*), which dignity he sustained until he

reached the age of twenty-one years, when the degree of knighthood was open to him. On his entrance upon the duties of chivalry, he was required to take a number of oaths, enjoining him to shield the church and uphold the faith, and to be in readiness to revenge all injuries done to it. He was to keep his own honour inviolate and unsullied, and to observe towards the female sex a high moral demeanour, becoming delicacy, and modesty; esteeming a dame or maiden of inferior rank, if of unblemished reputation, above a high-born noble woman whose character was marked by the least stain. On his creation, he was invested with spurs, a coat of mail, cuirass, varn braces and gauntlets, and a sword; afterwards he was pronounced "dubbed" (from *adoubis*, adopt), and addressed by his lord in the following words: "In the name of God, of St. Michael, and St. George, I dub thee knight."

To take part in the tournaments, it was requisite to belong to the order of chivalry or knighthood, and to possess an unblemished reputation. The arms first used consisted of wooden swords, with blunted iron points; afterwards steel swords were allowed, but they were not sharpened or whetted, and long lances. The combatants fought either in masses, or singly, and the victory was awarded to him who lifted his adversary out of his saddle. The rewards consisted generally of valuable arms, wrought in gold, of neck chains, or rings, made of gold, which the conquerors received from the hands of some noble dame. The tournament was presided over by those knights who were eminent for their deeds of chivalry, and who regulated the proceedings according to established laws. After the tournament, the esquires gratified the company by performing a joust with their long lances.

During the period of the crusades, commerce and navigation made considerable progress. The states of Venice and Genoa, with Pisa, by assisting the crusaders in their holy wars, also obtained for themselves considerable trading privileges, and established emporiums of commerce on the coasts of Greece, and in Asia. Towards the middle of the thirteenth century those associations began to be formed, termed leagues. In 1241, the *Hanseatic League* was established by the citizens of Hammar (Hamburg), Lubeck, and Bremen, in all (before the close of the thirteenth century) embracing upwards of eighty towns; their four great emporia were, Novgorod and Narva for Russia, etc., Bergen for Scandivania, London

for the British Isles, and Bruges, and afterwards Antwerp, for the nations on the German frontiers. Commerce was also facilitated by those overland missions which during this period were undertaken by Italy and France, as well as by many other European nations, who despatched their messengers to the great khan of the Mongols, and to the emperor who resided farther east; from whom also ambassadors arrived at the courts of Rome, Paris, London, etc. The east and west being thus brought into contact, combined with the residence of the crusaders so long in the East, considerably improved their manners. The inhabitants of the West became more elevated, refined, and polished; old prejudices were removed, and the judgments of men, hitherto cramped and warped, assumed a greater degree of elasticity and freedom. It was by these mutual interchanges that the arts of the West were made known in the distant countries of the East, and by the same means the commodities of the East first found their way into Europe, where their value quickly began to be appreciated. Hence we soon find new routes opened by which to carry on commercial enterprises; silks, china, porcelain, etc., with the rich fabrics and delicate textures of India, speedily find their way into the ports of Caffa, and Azov, etc., the entrepots of the Venetians and Genoese. Before the crusades, commerce had been limited by restrictions, but after the excitement created by them had passed away maritime commerce received a powerful impulse, and this gave rise to the formation of towns and cities. Guilds and companies began to be established by the burghers; hence a third order of society was founded, distinct from the clergy and nobility. Before this period the inhabitants of the cities or towns possessed neither civil nor political rights, and were treated almost as serfs. The most populous and oppressed cities resolved to throw off this yoke, and formed communes or corporations. At length, charters were obtained, either by force or by purchase, which secured to them their liberty, and the protection of the sovereign, whose interest it was to shield those who provided for the wants of his exchequer, and at the same time limited the overgrown power of the feudal chiefs. The burghers at length fortified their cities, and placed themselves in a condition to defend their liberties against the attacks of their feudal lords, who were compelled at last to yield to the power of these communes; nor did the burghers defend themselves

only, but also protected the slaves and freedmen who lived outside the cities, in the country, and whom they encouraged to escape from their tyrannical superiors, and take refuge within the city walls, well knowing, if they were not discovered and claimed within a certain time, that their freedom was secure. The nobles at length perceived that slavery must be mitigated, if not abolished. The continual feuds which sprang up between the free cities, many of them being erected into powerful republics, rendered their partial freedom at least an act of necessity.

The period of the crusades was distinguished by the acquisition of a large amount of geographical knowledge; and the countries of the East opened up to the inhabitants of the West an order of things entirely new; missions to the remote lands of the East were entered upon, and an intense desire for discovery was everywhere manifested. The shores of the Baltic were explored by the merchants of Bremen, and the members of the Hansa (Hanseatic league) penetrated, by following the track of the Permians and Varegues, into Tartary. Carpini, Ascelin, Rubruquis, and the brothers Polo, with many others, traversed the countries of the East, and laid a sort of foundation for future discoveries, although at first the accounts which they gave were entirely discredited.

§ 35.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE UNDER LOTHAIRE THE SAXON, 1125—1137.

With Henry v. ended the male line of the house of Franconia; a new election, therefore, became indispensable. On the assembling of the nobles, under the direction of the Archbishop of Maynz, four princes were proposed for the imperial dignity (Conrad and Henry the Proud being excluded, although the former had, with his brother Frederick, been named by the late emperor as his successor). Under the influence of the archbishop, who was no friend to the house of Hohenstaufen, of which Frederick, the expectant of the throne, was a member, the election fell upon Lothaire, although he had urged the electors not to nominate him. At his election he agreed that the church should possess the right of choosing her own officers, and that the investitures with the temporalities of the church should not take place until after the consecration by the pope.

There were also several remarkable innovations introduced into the concordat sworn to by Lothaire, inserted under the direction of the papal legate, among which the presence of the emperor was forbidden at the ecclesiastical elections, and the oath of allegiance taken by the clergy was changed into one of simple adherence of fidelity, while the temporal princes were bound to both. He even dispatched prelates to Rome to request the papal confirmation of his own election; thus giving up, by his submission, the fundamental principles upon which the empire was founded; for hitherto the emperor had confirmed the election of the popes, and not unfrequently nominated them also. To the election of this servile sovereign Frederick of Suabia demurred, and a civil war ensued. Frederick was joined by the powerful duke of Bavaria, Henry the Proud, whom the emperor detached from the interests of Frederick by conferring upon him the vacant duchy of Saxony, and the hand of his daughter. His place was however soon after supplied by Conrad of Franconia (just returned from the crusades), who joined Frederick with his Lombardian and German troops. In the end, however, Lothaire triumphed, and forced his rivals to submit, when he passed over into Italy, and soon after received the crown from the hands of Innocent II.

The members of the house of Hohenstaufen not only maintained themselves in their vast possessions, but sought also to obtain the imperial crown, and therefore commenced a civil war for the purpose of raising Duke Conrad to the empire. Conrad, however, soon found that in Germany his cause was hopeless, and therefore turned his hopes towards Italy, which country he entered, and was crowned at Monza. The pope, however, pronounced an excommunication against him and his adherents, which had the effect of depriving him of all further assistance from his allies. He had therefore no other resource but to submit, after a struggle of nine years' duration.

Lothaire made two expeditions into Italy. His first was to settle the schism in the church, consequent on the simultaneous election of two popes (Anaclete II. and Innocent II.). The latter, who had been driven from Rome by Anaclete, was restored (1132), and as a proof of his gratitude, not only crowned Lothaire, but invested him with a feudal supremacy over the lands of the Countess Matilda of Tuscany, belonging to the church, and also revoked the greater portion of the concordat entered into at his election. Lothaire's second campaign was to avenge the pope on the Sicilian king, Roger II., who had been the partisan and defender of the anti-pope Anaclete, who raised Roger from the rank of a duke to that of king of the Two Sicilies. Roger was expelled from Lower Italy, where he had seized the principalities of Capua and Beneventum, and retired to Sicily. Lothaire died on his

return from Italy to Germany, in an obscure rustic cottage on the confines of Bavaria (1137). Soon after this, Roger again entered Italy, and subdued the duchy of Capua and the principality of Naples, thus completing the conquest of a kingdom which remains to this day.

In the reign of Lothaire began the rise of the *house of Brandenburg*. During the absence of Lothaire on his first Italian campaign, Albert (the Boar), son of the Count Ascania of Ballenstadt (and of the daughter of the Saxon duke, Magnus), rendered the emperor some important services, for which he was rewarded with the margraviate of North Saxony. In a few years, Albert, by his valour considerably extended his dominions, at the expense of the Slaves beyond the Elbe, and gave to the whole the name of the March (Mark) of Brandenburg.

§ 36.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE UNDER THE HOUSE OF HOHEN- STAUFEN (OR STAUFEN), 1138—1254.

1) Conrad III., 1138—1152.

The sudden demise of Lothaire (without male issue) exposed the empire to all the horrors of a civil war. There were two competitors for the crown: Conrad, the duke of Franconia, and Henry the Proud, the possessor of two great duchies, and son-in-law of Lothaire. Through the interest of the Archbishop of Treves (the archbishopric of Maynz being vacant), no friend to the house of Saxony, Conrad was elected to the imperial dignity, and was immediately crowned king of the Romans by the papal legate, who, as the representative of Innocent II., attended the diet. The emperor, dreading the power of his rival, endeavoured to strip him of a portion of his possessions, and procured the sanction of a diet for the restoration of one of his two duchies. Henry became exasperated with the proceedings of the emperor and his creatures, and on his condemnation being pronounced at the diet of Wurtzburg, he prepared for war. Saxony was conferred by the diet on Albert the Boar, and Bavaria was given to Leopold of Austria. Henry, however, continued to keep possession of Saxony in spite of the emperor, but died in the midst of success, leaving his rights to his infant son Henry (the Lion), who was immediately recognised by the Saxon states. A prince, named Guelph, uncle of the infant Henry, espoused the cause of his nephew, and, assisted by the kings of Sicily and Hungary, expelled Leopold from Bavaria. Henry, and his allies, at length were driven to the strongly fortified city of Weinsberg, in Suabia, which, after a long siege, surrendered.

Soon after the fall of Weinsberg, Leopold died, and the war was concluded by the signing of a treaty. Henry received his patrimonial inheritance, the duchy of Saxony, in return, and resigned Bavaria to the Margrave of Austria. Albert of Saxony, who had received that province, was recompensed by the erection of Brandenburg to the dignity of a state, ranking with Suabia, Bavaria, etc. The peace of Germany having been established, Conrad entered upon the crusades, and on his return, found the empire convulsed by the ambition of the Guelphs, whom he soon subdued. He was preparing an expedition to Rome, to receive the imperial crown from the pontiff, and to punish Roger of Sicily, who had assisted in fomenting the troubles of the empire, when death put an end to his plans (1152).

It was during the reign of Conrad that the warcries of Guelph and Ghibeline were first used; the former being the name of the leader; the latter (that of Ghiblingen) being the name of the patrimonial seat of the Hohenstaufen family, in Wurtemberg. These terms were first used at the battle of Weinsberg, and afterwards introduced into Italy, the Guelphs representing the opponents, and the Ghibelines, the defenders of the imperial authority.

On the surrender of Weinsberg, it was stipulated that the women of the besieged town might carry out with them that which they considered most valuable, or as much as they could bear: hence, shortly after the stipulation had been agreed upon, the emperor was astonished and surprised by beholding the married dames and young women bearing away the male citizens and the soldiers of the garrison on their shoulders, and thus saving their lives. From this circumstance, the hill on which the city stands was designated "Weibertreue" (woman's fidelity), a name which is still preserved.

2) Frederic (I.) Barbarossa, 1152—1190.

The death of Conrad was preceded by that of his eldest son, Henry, who had been acknowledged by the states as his successor. His younger son, who was yet a minor, recommended the election of his nephew Frederick, who had already distinguished himself nobly in the wars of the crusades. Besides being possessed of great personal valour and mental ability, Frederick was allied to the two houses of the Guelphs and the Ghibelines, which had contended with each other for the empire, and was therefore regarded as their most distinguished chief. To reconcile the chiefs of the two houses, he bestowed on Guelph of Bavaria the fiefs of the Countess Matilda of Tuscany, held by the emperor as a fief of the papal see, the duchy of Spoleto, and the march of Ancona. Bavaria was, by the

votes of the diet (assembled for the pacification of the empire and the contending vassals), taken from Leopold of Austria, and awarded to Henry the Lion, to whose father it had formerly belonged. To indemnify Leopold for the loss of Bavaria, Austria was erected into a patrimonial duchy, not, however, raised to the dignity of the states whose dukes possessed the celebrated privilege of *pretaxation*, and were therefore styled elective princes, but a duchy immediately dependent upon the empire. The great end of Frederick was to re-establish the sovereign authority, which in Germany was restricted by the powerful vassals of the empire, and in Italy had sunk into perfect insignificance and contempt. The Italians he considered in a state of revolt against the imperial throne, and the German nation; hence he determined to reduce them to subjection. For this end he entered Italy six different times during his short reign of thirteen years.

First Italian Campaign (1154).—From the time of Henry iv., the cities and towns of Lombardy had declared themselves free from the jurisdiction of the imperial governors, and had chosen for themselves magistrates and consuls. Besides this, they had usurped regalian privileges, coined money, and levied taxes. Milan was one of the greatest of the free cities, and exercised dominion over many minor towns, severely punishing those which resisted. Lodi was destroyed, and its inhabitants scattered; and Como was dismantled by the Milanese, who at length grew sufficiently powerful to resist even the forces of the emperor. Complaints against the Milanese from Cremona and Pavia having reached the ears of Frederick, who was also informed of their treatment of the cities of Lodi and Como, he determined to reduce that powerful city, in particular, to obedience. For that purpose, accompanied by Henry, the duke of Bavaria, he entered Italy with a powerful army composed of Germans, and commanded the Milanese to supply him with provisions on the road. The army occupying two days in reaching a place which it was supposed they would arrive at in one, provisions failed; and the enraged army avenged themselves on the miserable inhabitants, by burning the Milanese villages wherever there was not sufficient food. Chieri and Asti, two cities in the interest of the Milanese, were plundered and burned. Tortona, assisted by 200 Milanese, sustained a siege of sixty-two days, and surrendered only from the want of water. The emperor

allowed the inhabitants to retire to Milan, but the city was given up to fire and pillage. Frederick now entered Pavia, and placed on his head the iron crown of Lombardy. The Germans, tired of the expedition, urged the emperor to avoid all collision with the great towns and cities, and proceed at once to Rome, whither he had been summoned by Pope Adrian IV., to repress the insurrection incited by Arnold of Brescia. Frederick therefore passed by Milan, Placentia, Parma, Florence, etc., and reached the Roman territories. He was not, however, able to effect an entrance into the city, which was in the hands of the rebellious Romans, but was crowned by the pope, Adrian IV., in the suburbs of the Vatican, his troops, meanwhile, being employed in resisting the Romans, who were advancing to prevent the ceremony. Frederick, after his coronation, prepared for his return; and on his way, set fire to the cities of Spoleto, Rosati, Trecale, and Galiata, etc., which were totally consumed. The Milanese, however, soon rebuilt and garrisoned them. On the return of the emperor to Germany, his army was reduced to a mere fragment.

On the rise of the Italian cities, the spirit of independence was shared by the inhabitants of Rome itself; and this was fostered by the eloquent appeals of a monk, once the disciple of the renowned Abelard, who harangued the populace on their ancient liberties, and the abuses which had disgraced the Roman church. Driven from Italy by Pope Innocent, and the decision of the Lateran council (1139), Arnold, the monk of Brescia, fled to Switzerland, and under his fostering care and counsel, the town of Zurich at length possessed the exercise of a free constitution. In 1143, the Romans, who had driven the pope from Rome, and were seconded by the senate, recalled the monk Arnold to assist them. On his arrival, he exhorted them to re-establish the Roman republic, with its consuls; to reinstate the equestrian order; and to emulate the glorious deeds of their ancestors. With the scenes of murder and plunder which took place, the honest monk had, probably, nothing to do. He remained in poverty during the whole ten years in which Rome was in a state of anarchy. On the excommunication of the city of Rome by Pope Adrian IV., in consequence of the murder of one of the cardinals, the fickle and ungrateful inhabitants, in order to be reconciled, agreed to exile the honest patriot, who took refuge among some friendly nobles in Campania. On the arrival of Frederick to be crowned, the pope demanded the arrest of the monk, which was ordered by the emperor, who caused him to be delivered into the hands of the prefect of Rome. By the command of the pope he was strangled, after which his body was burned, and the ashes thrown into the Tiber (1155).

In the *Second Italian Campaign* (1158), Frederick, after com-

elling the Brescians to pay down a large sum of money, as a ransom, proceeded to the Milanese territories, and forced the militias of Lodi, Pavia, Cremona, and other Milanese towns, to assist him in the siege of Milan. The Milanese, after enduring great hardships from famine, agreed to capitulate. Part of their civil rights were secured to them, as well as the independence of the towns of Lodi, Como, Tortona, and Crema. Shortly after, Frederick, at a diet held at Roncaglia, overthrew the rights and immunities which he had granted; took from them the privilege of electing their own consuls; the right of making private war; and changed the boundaries of the towns, depriving them of the important little town of Monza, and the counties of Seprio and Martesana. The Milanese regarded these acts as violations of the treaty, and again took up arms. On the arrival of the *Podesta*, or judge appointed by the emperor, at Milan, to take his seat at the tribunal, he was indignantly driven away. Frederick now placed the city under the ban of the empire, and resolved to destroy the rebellious city; he laid waste all the produce of their fields, cutting down all their vine-trees, and breaking up their canals. Crema was first attacked, and after a siege of six months was compelled by famine to surrender. The city was given up to pillage, and then razed to the ground. In 1161, having received reinforcements from Germany, after a siege of two years, the Milanese surrendered at discretion, famine having triumphed over courage and the love of liberty. Frederick ordered the city to be completely evacuated, and then so completely destroyed it, that not one stone was left upon another. Some of the citizens built four little towns, about two miles from the ruins of their ancient city, and took up their residence in them; others of the inhabitants sought refuge in the neighbouring cities and towns of Italy.

On the death of Adrian IV., the divided cardinals elected two popes, Alexander III., and Victor III. Frederick, perceiving the pliant disposition of the latter, espoused his cause, and compelled Alexander to flee for refuge to France, although supported by nearly the whole of the states of Europe. Alexander, in return, excommunicated the emperor. On the death of Victor, Frederick nominated Paschal III. to the papal chair, a man less esteemed by the church than Victor. Alexander, on the other side, returned to Rome from France, and, forming an alliance with the Norman king of the Two Sicilies, armed the whole of southern Italy against the emperor.

Frederick, on his *third entrance into Italy* (1163), was not

accompanied by an army, but by the flower of the German nobility. He found the cities and towns all arrayed against his authority, and protesting against the vexations of the *Podestas* appointed by him. The emperor attempted to raise the militias of the cities and towns, to put down the spirit of liberty which was fast spreading over the Italian territories, but was compelled to relinquish the attempt, and took his departure for Germany, to assemble his army.

The *Fourth Italian Campaign* was deferred until 1166, when Frederick and his army marched direct upon Lodi, where he held a diet, and promised to redress the grievances of the citizens of Upper Italy, arising from the iniquitous conduct of his *Podestas*. Marching his army into Central Italy, he took eighty hostages from the Bolognese, as a security for their fidelity, and laid siege to Ancona, but was soon compelled to abandon it, and proceed to Rome. The Romans awaited the arrival of the Germans in the open field, and after a dreadful conflict, were compelled to retreat, and yield up the city to the emperor. Alexander fled, when the Romans acknowledged the antipope, Paschal III., and took the oath of fidelity to Frederick, who, with his consort, was crowned in the basilica of the Vatican. During the celebration of the coronation festivals, a pestilence, arising from the heat of the Campagna, broke out, carrying off, in a few days, many of the princes, with 2,000 knights, and a still greater number of the common soldiers of the German army. This disaster compelled the departure of the emperor, whose track was marked by the vast graves which were dug for the reception of the dead. He passed the winter in Lombardy, combating, with the remnant of his army, the militias raised by the refractory members of the league. Unable to vanquish them, he repassed Mont Cenis, on the Alps, to Germany. Frederick, after his departure, sent the warlike prelate, the Archbishop of Maynz, into Italy, as his representative. On his arrival, he threw the consuls of the Pisans and the Florentines into prison, and prevailed on several towns to assist him in attacking the powerful city of Ancona. The inhabitants withstood the besiegers until all human subsistence was exhausted, and refused every offer to capitulate. The timely arrival of succour from the league, delivered the brave defenders; and the archbishop and his army, worn out by a long siege, beat a hasty retreat.

During the reverses of the emperor, and the schism which had arisen in the Romish church, the towns of the Veronese marches, in connection with the principal cities of Lombardy, formed themselves into a solemn league for the recovery of the common liberty. This confederation, represented by the consuls of the various cities, was named the *League of Lombardy*, and was to last for twenty years. The members of it agreed that they should all act in common to assist each other, and to repair any damage that might be sustained in the sacred cause of liberty. One of the first acts of the league was the resolution to rebuild the city of Milan, which soon rose from its ruins, and was again in a condition to repel the attacks of the emperor (1167). The city of Lodi, in the interest of the emperor, was compelled by force of arms to join the league; but the Venetian towns of Placentia, Parma, Modena, and Bologna, voluntarily joined the confederation. In 1168, the league was further strengthened by the accession of Novara, Vercelli, Como, Asti, Tortona, and the city of Alessandria (Della Paglia—city of straw), built by the league on the confluence of the rivers Tanaro and Bormida, against the powerful Marquis of Montferrat and the Pavians.

The *Fifth Italian Campaign* of Frederick took place 1174—1178, when, at the head of a formidable army, he passed into Savoy, and over Mont Cenis into Lombardy. Here, near Como, he was met by his powerful vassal Henry the Lion, who, however, refused to furnish his contingent of troops, and finally left the emperor to himself. Frederick, however, confidently pursued his way; Suza was taken and burned, and Asti agreed to the payment of a heavy tribute; but Alessandria, the city of mud and straw, succeeded for a while in checking his career. Frederick, for four months, with his army, sat down before the city; but on the arrival of the combined army of the league from Placentia, the emperor and his troops were compelled to raise the siege, and take the road to Pavia. Frederick and the Lombard chiefs now negotiated for peace, which was broken off in consequence of the imperious demands of Frederick. In 1176, having received reinforcements from Germany, he entered the Milanese territory, and met the Lombard army between Lignano and Barano. The onset of the Germans was terrific, and the Milanese gave way. The heroism and bravery of the “Band of Death,” consisting of 900 brave young men, however, inspired the drooping courage of the army, and it advanced against the Germans with such indomitable courage, that their ranks were broken, and the whole army put to flight. Their camp was pillaged, and Frederick, separated from his troops, was compelled to pursue the way to Pavia as he best could. This defeat at Lignano led to a treaty of peace between the emperor and the

pope, and the Italians of Lombardy met to conclude a peace; but after long and vain attempts, a truce of six years only was agreed upon, during which the rights of each were to remain in suspense. On the conclusion of this armistice, a peace was signed at Constance, where Frederick assembled the diet, and renounced all regal rights to the internal government of the towns, and allowed the cities to confederate, raise armies, and appoint their own consuls, etc. The citizens, on their part, engaged to maintain the just demands of the emperor, which were at any time to be redeemable by the annual payment of 2,000 silver marks.

On the emperor's return to Germany, Frederick caused Henry the Lion, who had declined to accompany him in his fifth Italian campaign, to be summoned before three consecutive diets; but he refused to obey the citation. The diet assembled at Wurtzburg declared him guilty of high treason, and deprived him of his vast estates, which were by subsequent diets thus distributed:—Saxony was given to Count Bernard of Anhalt, the second son of Albert the Boar; Westphalia and Angrivaria were conferred on the Archbishop of Cologne; Holstein was subjected to the empire; Bavaria was restored to the family of Arnulf the Bad, from whom it had been wrested by Otho I., and was conferred on Otho of Wittelsbach; Lubeck and Ratisbon were raised to the rank of imperial cities; Eichsfeldt was presented to the Archbishop of Maynz; Styria and the Tyrol were made dependencies of the empire, instead of remaining attached to the duchy of Bavaria; while the bishoprics founded by Henry in Mecklenburg and Pomerania were erected into principalities of the empire. The remaining territories of this powerful vassal were distributed among the archbishops of Bremen and Magdeburg, and Duke Bernard of Anhalt. Henry the Lion, however, still refused to submit, and took up arms. For three years he struggled against the combined forces of the empire, but at length sued for pardon, which was only granted on the condition of three years' absence from Germany. Henry agreed to the terms, and retired to the court of his father-in-law, Henry II. of England. On the expiration of the term, he was allowed to return, and Frederick procured for him the restoration of the duchies of Brunswick and Lunenburg.

Frederick, having held a brilliant diet at Maynz, declared his two sons, Henry and Frederick, capable of bearing arms,

and appeared, *for the sixth time, in Italy*, where he was everywhere received with the most distinguished honours, and the greatest enthusiasm. On his arrival at Milan (recently rebuilt by the Lombard league), he celebrated the nuptials of his son Henry with Constanza, the heiress of the Two Sicilies, by which that kingdom was brought into his family. (For an account of his crusade and death, see the *Third Crusade*, page 154.)

3) Henry VI., 1190—1197.

Henry VI. had been elected king of the Romans, and had governed the empire as regent during his father's absence in the crusades; hence there was no public recognition of him by the princes of the empire, to the crown of which he came as by hereditary right. On receiving intelligence of the death of his father-in-law, William II. of Naples and Sicily, he hastened into Lower Italy, to secure the inheritance of his consort, which the Sicilians, who detested the supremacy of the Germans, had bestowed upon a bastard of the race of Norman kings, named Tancred. Henry having been crowned at Rome, advanced to Naples, which was bravely defended by Tancred, who resisted all the efforts of Henry to gain possession of the kingdom. A mortality breaking out among his troops, he was compelled to retrace his steps, a proceeding rendered more necessary by the news of his brother's death, and the rebellion of Henry the Lion, which, however, was soon quelled on his return. With the proceeds of the ransom of Richard Cœur de Lion, he was enabled to undertake a second expedition into Italy, where, on his arrival (Tancred having died, 1194), the citizens of the chief towns opened their gates for his reception. Henry entered the kingdom as a conqueror, and under the pretext of the discovery of a conspiracy, he committed the most violent acts of cruelty upon the inhabitants. The chief of the clergy and the nobility were either hanged or burned, while William, the son and successor of Tancred, had his eyes put out, and was otherwise mutilated. These acts of cruelty, coupled with the ungenerous retention of Richard as a prisoner, brought down upon him the vengeance of the pope, who excommunicated him. The chief aim of Henry, on his return from Italy, was to secure the hereditary descent of the crown in his family; and for this purpose he had gained over many of the princes of the empire. To obtain the consent of the electoral states, he offered to incor-

porate his kingdoms of Naples and Sicily with the empire, and to render the allodes and fiefs of the vassals hereditary in their families. In this he failed, through the opposition of the Archbishop of Maynz and the house of Saxony; but he succeeded in obtaining for his infant son, Frederick, the crown of Rome. In 1197, Henry resolved to undertake a crusade against the Mohammedans of Byzantium, and was on his way, when he suddenly died at Messina, to the great joy of his Italian subjects, whom he ruled with great barbarity.

4) Philip of Suabia, 1198—1208; and Otho IV., 1198—1215.

On the death of Henry VI., the two factions in Germany at the same time raised to the empire the two chiefs of the houses of Guelph and Ghibeline: Philip, duke of Suabia, who ruled as regent for the young prince, to whom he was uncle; and Otho, duke of Bavaria and Saxony, son of Henry the Lion, who was supported by his uncle, Richard Cœur de Lion. The latter submitted the election to the pope for his decision, who, after vainly endeavouring to reconcile the rival factions, pronounced in favour of Otho; Philip being inimical to the church of Rome, whose ecclesiastical states in Tuscany (the allodes of the Countess of Matilda) he refused to resign. The king of Bohemia, and the Danish king, joined Otho against Philip, who was powerfully opposed also by the Archbishop of Cologne. Success, however, crowned the efforts of Philip, and in 1204, he was crowned by the Archbishop of Cologne, and even acknowledged by pope Innocent III. Otho still maintained the war, and fled to Cologne, from which place he narrowly escaped with his life, and took shelter in his hereditary duchy of Brunswick, to the limits of which he was restricted. At length, a truce of nine months was agreed to; but just before its expiration, Philip, who had gathered a large army together, to decide the contest between them, fell by the hand of Otho of Wittelsbach, to whom he had promised his daughter in marriage, but had refused to fulfil the engagement, in consequence of the crime of murder which was laid to his charge (1208).

The princes, wearied with the war, agreed to unite under Otho IV., who was therefore crowned anew at Aix-la-Chapelle. He was, however, obliged to swear that he would not take any steps to render the crown hereditary in his family, and that he would abolish the Roman laws throughout the empire, and

re-establish the provincial codes issued by Charlemagne. At the same diet, the ban of the empire was proclaimed against Otho of Wittelsbach, who was degraded from his honours, and condemned to death. He was overtaken on the banks of the Danube, and slain by the hereditary marshal of the empire, to whom the execution of the sentence had been intrusted. To unite the two houses of Guelph and Ghibeline, Otho resolved upon a marriage with Beatrix, the daughter of Philip; and on his arrival shortly after in Rome, received the imperial crown from the hands of pope Innocent III., on which occasion the pope demanded the restoration of the Tuscan lands, and a promise not to interfere with his young ward, the king of Sicily, who reigned under his tutelage. The non-fulfilment of these demands on the part of Otho, who proceeded to drive out the papal troops from Apulia and Calabria, and claimed from the pope a revocation of the concordat of 1122, by which the terms of investiture were settled, led the sovereign pontiff to excommunicate him, and to set up the young king of Sicily, the representative heir of the Ghibeline faction, as emperor in his place. Frederick, after many hair-breadth escapes in Lombardy, where the Guelphs were strong, and had possession of the passes of the Alps, reached Aix-la-Chapelle (1212), where the German Ghibelines were assembled to receive him, and was crowned king of Rome and Germany. In the meanwhile, Otho had passed over from Italy into Germany; and although he was powerfully supported by the Lombards and Saxons, yet was he not in a position to stand against the combined forces of the princes of the empire, whom Frederick had by degrees drawn over to his cause. The Lombard city of Milan, which fought against Frederick, was excommunicated by the pope; and this operated as a terror to the rest, in addition to which, Otho had, with his ally, John of England, been defeated at Bouvines by Philip Augustus. Otho therefore thought it prudent to withdraw from the contest. He accordingly retired to his hereditary duchy of Brunswick, where he died in the Harzburg, 1213.

5) Frederick II., 1215—1250.

Frederick, on his accession to the German throne, continued to enjoy the favour of the pope, who had sustained him in his kingdom of Sicily. Honorius, however, did not forget the interests of the papal see, but wrung from the docile emperor such concessions as his predecessors had altogether repudiated.

He obtained from Frederick the renunciation of all right to interfere in the elections of the church dignitaries, the surrender of the Tuscan lands of the Countess Matilda, and the resignation of all claim to the personal property of deceased prelates. On the occasion of his coronation at Maynz, 1222, Frederick further agreed not to unite the crowns of Sicily and Germany, and resigned the former in favour of his son Henry; he also agreed to take up the badge of the cross against the infidels. This latter promise, however, Frederick repeatedly refused to fulfil, and occupied himself in securing the hereditary descent of his patrimonial and other estates, the affairs of which had fallen into disorder. Frederick, who had already procured the crown of Italy for his son Henry, also king of Sicily, next proceeded to nominate him heir to the German crown, and to fix the seat of his power in Italy; for this purpose he bestowed imperial rights upon the German and Italian nobility, who were favourable to his projects. Gregory IX., who had succeeded to the papal throne, a most rigid and talented pontiff, insisted upon the performance of his promise respecting the crusade, which, to induce him to undertake, the late pope had caused him to marry the daughter of the king of Jerusalem (for an account of his crusades, see p. 155). In 1229, Frederick departed almost alone, and obtained by treaty with the sultan of Egypt that which the united arms of Europe had failed to procure. On his return, 1230, he found that the ancient league of Lombardy, which had been renewed (1226) for the purpose of defending in concert their own interests, and the liberties and the independence of the papal see, was arrayed against him, and that his Italian dominions had been invaded by the papal troops, in revenge for an inroad made upon his territories by the imperial governor, the Duke of Spoleto. Frederick soon drove out his enemies from Lower Italy; and shortly after, through the intercession of Herman of Salza, a peace was concluded at Paquara, 1230, in which also the Lombardian cities which had joined the league were included.

Frederick, who made no attempts to disturb the rights of the Lombard cities, was not, however, disposed to allow them, in conjunction with the pope, to be the enemies of the empire; he therefore raised a large army, consisting of upwards of 30,000 Mussulmen, which he placed in Lower Italy; these troops, which Frederick obtained from Sicily, he at length drew towards Lom-

bardy, with the intention of attacking them from the south, but the pope, who had not been idle, by his agents stirred up the Guelphs of Germany against him, and even induced the son of Frederick to rebel against his father. The young prince was crowned king of Germany, and proceeded to Milan, to receive the iron crown of Lombardy, offered to him by the Milanese. Frederick, on hearing of this defection, hastened into Germany, and summoned his son to Worms, who threw himself at the feet of the emperor, and pleaded earnestly for pardon; Frederick banished him to Apulia, where he died a few years after. The rebellion in Germany occupied two years in subduing; at the expiration of that period Frederick, with 3,000 Germans, advanced into Italy against the senate of Verona. At the request of Frederick, Eccelino was appointed imperial governor, and intrusted with the command of the army. Frederick then left Lombardy for Germany, where fresh troubles had arisen, but soon returned, and appeared before Mantua, where he was joined by 10,000 Saracens. After skilfully manœuvring his troops, Frederick placed himself between the Milanese and their territories. Retreat being cut off, the two armies met at Cortenuovo, near Crema, where the Milanese were defeated, with the loss of above 10,000 men, and the sacred carroccio (car). The towns of Lombardy now began to withdraw their opposition to the emperor; Milan, Brescia, Placentia, and Bologna, only remained on the side of the papal or Guelphic party. Frederick was now once more master of the Two Sicilies, Germany (and Lombardy, with but little exception). Gregory redoubled his efforts to save the Guelphs, and procured the assistance of the maritime republics of Venice and Genoa, who joined the four cities of Lombardy which yet refused to yield to the emperor. Frederick was again excommunicated by the pope, whose anathemas caused many of the nobles to withdraw their support from him. In 1241, a general council of all the prelates of Christendom was summoned, to give weight to the authority of the pope. The Pisans, who had espoused the party of Frederick, in some measure prevented this, by attacking the Genoese fleet off Melloria, which had the French prelates on board. After sinking three ships, and capturing nearly twenty, they seized the ecclesiastics, and conveyed them to Pisa; this disastrous reverse had such an effect upon the mind of Gregory, whose ambitious spirit had been so often disappointed, that he died a few

months after, (1241,) when for two years the papal see was left without a head. In 1243, Innocent IV. was elected to the papal chair, and proceeded against Frederick more vigorously than his predecessor; he brought over the Lombards to his side, and stirred up the Guelphs of Genoa and Piedmont against him. The next step taken by Innocent was the summoning together an œcumenic council, for the purpose of procuring the condemnation and deposition of Frederick. To secure this, the council was fixed to be held at Lyons, and the pope himself was to be present at its proceedings; at the third sitting of the council the deposition of the emperor took place, and the pains of excommunication pronounced against any of his subjects who should obey him; the electoral princes were commanded to select another emperor for Germany, while the pope reserved for himself the appointment of the king of the Two Sicilies. Insurrections were stirred up by the monks and friars, and even the private friends of Frederick urged to rid the church of its great enemy by assassination. Many plots were brought to light, and frequent executions took place in consequence. The emperor confided the government of Germany to his son Conrad, and proceeded into Lombardy, the cities of which had revolted in consequence of the atrocities committed by the imperial lieutenant, Eccelino. The emperor endeavoured to procure a reconciliation with the church, against the anathemas of which he had to struggle, and procured the mediation of Louis the Pious for that purpose; the pope, however, refused to listen to any proposals, and actively supported the rival kings of Germany and the Two Sicilies against Conrad and the emperor; and to strengthen his party, used every effort to hinder the departure of troops for the rescue of the Holy Land.

The revolt of Parma (1247) compelled Frederick again to take up arms, but the papal party triumphed, and took possession of the city; Frederick once more employed the Saracens of Lower Italy, and gathered under his sons Hans, or Ensius, the king of Sardinia, and Frederick, king of Antioch, and his lieutenant, Eccelino, a large army, with which he appeared before the walls of the city. The Guelphs, or papal party, assembled all the troops in their power to assist the besiegers, and were successful against the emperor's army, which was surprised, and compelled to raise the siege, while the emperor and his suite were absent. Frederick retired to the Sicilies, and gave the command of Lombardy to Ensius, who, after losing one city

after another, was at length taken prisoner at the great battle of Fossalta (1249). Frederick, now advanced in years, was completely worn out by the frequent defection of his friends, and the continued opposition of the papal or Guelphic party in Germany against his son Conrad. In 1250, he once more engaged the good offices of Louis, just returned from a crusade, in endeavouring to procure the reconciliation of the church; but while waiting anxiously for the result, he was seized with illness, and expired, at Firenzuola, near Luceia, after having received absolution from the archbishop of Tarento.

In 1246, Russia, Poland, and Hungary were overrun by the Tartars, who ravaged all the countries they passed through; on their arrival in Silesia they defeated the duke of that province, and his allies, with great slaughter, on a plain still termed the *Wahlstatt*, or the battle field. They then advanced through Moravia, and would have devastated the whole of Europe, had not the news of the death of their great khan rendered their presence in Asia necessary.

On the deposition of Frederick and Conrad at the council of St. Just (Lyons), the ecclesiastical dignitaries elected *Henry Raspe*, the landgrave of Thuringia (1246), named the *Parson King*, from the fact that the secular princes had no part in the election. On his being slain near Ulm in a conflict with the Saxons, after offering the dignity to several nobles, who declined the honour, the three archbishops of the empire offered it to *Count William of Holland*, who accepted it, and obtained the support of the king of Bohemia, whose united armies were employed against Conrad, until the death of Frederick.

6) *Conrad iv.*, 1250—1254. *William*, until 1256.

Conrad, although recognised by the Ghibelines, had still to oppose his rival, *William*, who was supported by the church; but as he preferred the crown of Sicily to that of Germany, he embarked from one of the ports of Istria for Naples, to secure Apulia, which was still in the hands of *Manfred*, who had possessed himself of it in the lifetime of Frederick, and refused to resign it. On his arrival he was opposed by *Manfred* and the Neapolitan Guelphs, against whom he carried on the war with varied success for three years, when he suddenly died, at *Novello*, leaving his son *Conradin* (*Conrad v.*), the young prince of the Two Sicilies, to succeed him in the crown of Germany (1254).

On the departure of *Conrad* for Italy, the cause of *William* was strengthened by the accession of the nobles of Franconia and Suabia, who, on the death of *Conrad*, be-

came independent patrimonial proprietors. With the death of Conradin the house of Hohenstaufen became extinct, and William was left in undisturbed possession of the throne of Germany. For ten years he struggled against the Ghibelines, and the other factions which the absence of the emperor in Italy had given rise to. At length he met his death in West Friesland, where he endeavoured to raise funds by means of a tribute; having entered a frozen morass which his horse could not penetrate, he was slain by some Frieslanders, who were ignorant of his high rank and dignity (1256).

During the reign of William, he gave the imperial sanction to a confederacy formed by some of the principal cities and towns on the Rhine, for the mutual protection of their commercial rights and privileges, rendered insecure in consequence of the anarchy which pervaded the empire. This Rhenish confederacy comprised the cities of Maynz, Cologne, Worms, Spires, Strasburg, and Berlin; subsequently, the Hanseatic League was formed for a similar purpose.

On the extinction of the house of Hohenstaufen, a vacancy arose in the duchies of Suabia and Franconia, the different secular and ecclesiastical vassals of which now seized the opportunity of rendering themselves independent patrimonial proprietors. A number of cities and towns, also the property of the ancient dukes of this house, were raised to the rank of free and imperial cities. Baden, Wurtemberg, Hohen-Zollern, Furstenburg, etc., all date their rise from this period.

THE GUELPHS.

Guelph IV,
duke of Bavaria.

||
Henry the Black,
duke of Bavaria.

{ Henry the Proud,
duke of Bavaria and Saxony,
† 1139;

his consort, Gertrude,
daughter of
Lothaire the Saxon.

||
Henry the Lion,
duke of Saxony and Bavaria.

{ William.
||
Otho IV, † 1218;
consort, Beatrix.

Otho the Child,
first duke of Brunswick
and Lumenburg.

THE HOHENSTAUFEN.

Frederick, duke of Suabia, † 1105;
married Agnes,
daughter of Henry II.

{ Judith;
married Frederick,
duke of Suabia, † 1147.

||
Frederick Barbarossa, † 1190.

{ Henry VI., † 1197;
consort, Constanza.
||
Frederick II., † 1250.

||
Frederick,
duke of Suabia,
† (before Acon) 1191.

{ Beatrix,
consort of Otho IV.

||
Alphonso X. of Castile.

{ Henry,
† 1242.
||
Conrad IV.,
† 1254.
||
Conradin, † 1260.

{ Hans, or Ensius,
† 1272.
||
Manfred.

||
Constancia,
consort of

Peter III. of Arragon.

§ 37.

THE INTERREGNUM IN GERMANY, 1257—1273.

The jealousy of the princes was too great to allow of the crown being worn by one of their own body, and the pope, Alexander IV., had threatened to excommunicate any prince who should attempt the election of Conradin. Consequently, the electoral princes resolved to bestow the dignity upon some foreign prince, who, having wealth sufficient to support the splendour of the sovereignty, and not possessing any territories within the empire, should be without inducement to curtail their liberties. The ecclesiastical party elected the Earl of Cornwall, while the opposite faction elected Alphonso, the king of Castile, both of whom distributed large sums of money among the venal ecclesiastical and temporal nobility, in order to secure their election. This double election protracted the civil wars of the empire, for although Richard was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, and afterwards acknowledged by the pope, yet the partisans of Alphonso continued to oppose him so long as the latter had funds to repay them for their services. Richard resided in Germany four separate times during his reign of fifteen years (1257), but the greater portion of his time was spent in England, where he assisted his brother, Henry III., in resisting the encroachments of the barons. In 1272, Richard died, and in the following year the Diet of Election was assembled at Frankfort, when, among other candidates, Alphonso, who had never set foot upon the German territories, preferred his claim to the throne. To the astonishment of Europe, Rodolph, the count of Hapsburg, was chosen, through the interests of the three electoral prelates of the empire, and the dukes of Bavaria, Saxony, etc., to whom he promised his daughters in marriage.

§ 38.

THE KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES, 1130—1282.

a) Under the Normans (1130—1194). Roger II., founder of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies (see § 25, d), was succeeded by William II., the supporter of pope Alexander III. against the emperor Frederick Barbarossa. On the death of William, the kingdom passed to the house of Ho-

henstaufen, by the marriage of Henry VI. with the daughter of Roger II., the aunt of William II. Upon his death, the throne was usurped for five years by an illegitimate son of Roger II., named Tancred, and his son and successor, William III.

b) Under the Hohenstaufens (1194—1266). Henry I. (VI.) was succeeded by his son, Frederick I. (II.), a child of three years old, whom the pope took under his guardianship, and set up in opposition to his father, in Germany. During the reign of Frederick, the royal residence was removed from Palermo to Naples, where the Italian language was spoken at his court. He also erected a university, founded schools, built splendid palaces, and encouraged commerce and manufactures. He also issued, for the benefit of his Italian subjects, a new code of laws (like those promulgated by Justinian), formed from the laws and customs of the ancient Normans, which however were not abolished on the introduction of the new code, but to continue in force as before. By this code the royal power was rendered more secure, by the limitation of that which was exercised in the courts of justice held by the feudal nobles in their respective territories. Frederick was succeeded by Conrad IV., who died suddenly, probably from poison, leaving behind him an infant son, Conradin, who was placed under the guardianship of his uncle, Manfred. In 1258, Manfred, determined no longer to be the tool of the pope as the guardian of Conradin, wrested the throne out of the hands of the young prince, and took upon himself the royal dignity; he was crowned at Palermo, in 1258. The pope, who had wrested the crown of the Two Sicilies from Frederick II., used every effort to render it a temporal fief; he was therefore amazed when he saw the hero Manfred firmly established in the sovereignty, and gaining also a considerable footing in the Italian peninsula. Unable to resist his victorious career, Urban IV. armed the French against him, and Alexander IV., his successor, even offered the crown to Edmund, the son of Henry III. of England, but he refused to lend his assistance; he also endeavoured to persuade Louis of France to aid him in his designs, but to no purpose. The more powerful Count of Anjou, and his ambitious consort, however, agreed at once to the terms offered by the pope, and invaded Sicily with an army of 30,000 men, and 1,000 knights, who marched

under the banners of the cross, and of Charles. Clement, who had succeeded to the papal chair, invested him with the sovereignty, on condition that the crown should never be united to that of the empire, or to the kingdoms of Lombardy and Tuscany. 8,000 ounces of gold, and a white palfrey, were to be the annual tribute. In 1265, Charles met Manfred on the plain of Grandella, near Beneventum, where, after a long and sanguinary contest, Manfred perished, and Charles and the Guelphs obtained the ascendancy in Italy.

c) Under the House of Anjou (1266—1282). After the conflict at Grandella, the German garrison was driven out of Italy, and its place occupied by the French. In 1267, on the invitation of the Ghibeline nobles, the young Conradin appeared in Upper Italy, with an army of 10,000 cavalry, which was joined by the militias of the Ghibeline republics; he encountered Charles in the plain of Tagliacozzo, where a desperate battle ensued, which terminated in the defeat and capture of Conradin, who was beheaded, by the order of his ruthless conqueror, in the market place at Naples, with several of the German and Italian nobility. On the scaffold he nominated Peter III. of Arragon, the son-in-law of Manfred, to the vacant crown. Charles proceeded to abolish the assemblies of the states, and distributed among the French, his followers, all the great fiefs of the kingdom, while he ruled the Italians and the Sicilians as with a rod of iron, oppressed them with intolerable burdens, in which he was aided by a pope of his own creating, Martin IV. (1281), who expelled all the Ghibelines from the cities, and conferred the government of the papal states upon French officers. A sudden explosion of popular feeling, however, delivered the kingdom from the tyranny of Charles, and the lieutenants of the pope. A French soldier having rudely insulted a young bride as she was on her way to the church of Montreal to receive the nuptial blessing, the news of the outrage spread throughout the city of Palermo, just as the bells of the various churches were ringing for vespers. The people ran through the streets, shouting, "To arms—death to the French;" and in a few hours, upwards of 4,000 were massacred in the city of Palermo alone, while other cities following the example thus set them, delivered the kingdom from the insolence and tyranny of Charles, who survived the catastrophe only three years. He expired on 7th January, 1285, leaving his son, Charles II., a

prisoner in the hands of the Sicilians. In 1288, Naples and Sicily were formed into two distinct kingdoms. Charles II., the first king of Naples, was liberated, and Peter of Arragon received the crown of Sicily, agreeably to the bequest of Conradin.

§ 39.

FRANCE, 1108—1270.

Louis VI. and VII. Philip II. Louis VIII. and IX. (the Saint).

I. Territorial States (Notice of). The whole of western France, from the coasts washed by the channel (English Channel) in the north, to the Pyrenees in the south, during the reign of Louis VII., came under the dominion of the English kings of the house of Plantagenet, to which house belonged, as hereditary domains, Anjou, Touraine, and Maine; also, as heirs of the Norman kings of England, the duchy of Normandy, and Bretagne (as a feudal fief); by marriage, Aquitaine and Gasconne also belonged to the English. The kings of Arragon took possession of the extreme southern portion of France; while the counts of Champagne and Flanders, and the dukes of Burgundy maintained themselves as petty sovereigns in their respective territories. The immediate royal domains of the Capetians were very inconsiderable, and consisted only of the Franconian duchy, anciently possessed by the Carolingians, and extending along the Oise and central Seine as far as the Loire. The French kings, therefore, endeavoured to reduce the power of the great feudatories, who had possessed themselves of the finest provinces of the kingdom, and to re-unite the former crown lands. Philip II., surnamed Augustus, was the great restorer of the lost glory of the French monarchy. He humbled all the greater vassals, and by seduction and artifice, rather than by valour in the field, contrived to wrest all the French lands from the English, with the exception of Guienne. Louis VIII., by his wars against the Albigenses, added considerably to the royal domains, while Louis IX., by the marriage of his brother to the daughter of the Count of Toulouse, brought the whole of the territorial possessions of the count eventually to the crown.

Louis, first called the Wakeful, and afterwards, the Fat (VI.), was the first monarch of France to re-

duce government to a system, or to act upon any settled rules of policy. On his accession France was in the hands of feudal chiefs, constantly engaged in war one with the other, and committing the most atrocious robberies upon the church, while even merchants and travellers were not safe in passing along the borders of their domains. Against such lawless nobles Louis successfully contended; and the barons of Montlheri, Couci, and Montmorency, nearest to the capital, and probably the most rapacious of the whole, were subdued. Hence the royal domains were freed from spoliation, and the roads to Paris and Orleans laid open to the free exercise of trade and commerce. The name of Louis is however also connected with the liberty of the subject. It was in his reign that the abolition of serfdom, or the enfranchisement of the communes (municipal corporations, guilds, or fraternities), took place. He also granted extensive privileges by charters to the various towns and cities; this tended to the elevation of the *tiers état*, or third estate, and served considerably to strengthen the royal authority. In 1109, on the refusal of Henry I. of England to destroy the castle of Gisors, the frontier port of France and Normandy, which had been mutually agreed upon, whenever the neutral baron should resign it, a war broke out, marked by the most cruel atrocities. Louis was not, however, able to obtain possession of the duchy, which, on the death of Henry I., was contended for by Maude, the sister of Henry, and Stephen, the usurper of the English throne. In 1137, Louis VI. died, and was succeeded by his son, Louis VII., who had just married the daughter of the Count of Poitou, whose dowry embraced all the lands lying between the Adour and the Loire. Louis VII., during the first years of his reign, was engaged in disputing with the pope, who laid France under an interdict. These disputes were further widened by his base conduct towards the Count of Champagne, whose daughter he caused to be repudiated, in order that her husband, a kinsman of Louis, might marry the sister of Eleanor, the queen, and so prevent the division of their landed inheritance. During the war, a church in which hundreds of the inhabitants sought refuge, was set fire to, when they all perished. The heart of the king was now seized with remorse, and he sought the absolution of the church, to which he now humbly resigned himself. Urged by the Abbot Bernard, of Clairvaux, to undertake the

cross, he at once agreed to take part in the second crusade, the money for which was chiefly obtained by the sale of privileges to the communes (burghers), and by subsidies levied upon the convents. During his absence, the affairs of his kingdom were placed in the hands of the Abbot Jager, of St. Denis. On the return of Louis to his discontented people, after the birth of a second princess, the queen Eleanor was divorced, and subsequently united to Henry Plantagenet, who by the alliance added Aquitaine and Poitou to his paternal inheritance of Normandy. From hence dates the rivalry between the kings of France and England. Louis died 1180, and was succeeded by his son Philip, styled *Dieu donne* (the August), who shortly after his accession, entered upon the crusades, in company with Richard Cœur de Lion. The two monarchs passed the winter in Sicily, where the beginning of their future jealousy took place. Philip, on his return to France, attacked the English provinces, and Richard, after his escape from captivity, entered France to defend them. He was however pierced by an arrow as he entered the dominions, and left the defence of the provinces to his base successor, King John (surnamed Lackland). In the beginning of the war, the nephew of John, Arthur of Brittany, whom Philip stirred up to lay claim to the greater portion of the English territories, fell into the hands of his uncle, and was cruelly murdered by him; for this and other cruel acts, he was cited before the chamber of peers at Paris, but John, although he allowed the jurisdiction of the court, refused to appear; he was therefore stripped of all his French possessions, excepting the duchy of Guienne. In 1203, Touraine, Maine, and Anjou, were annexed to the crown; the duchy of Normandy in 1205, and the county of Poitou in 1206. About this period, the aristocracy was divided into the higher and lower nobility, and petty lords no longer ranked as the great dukes and counts: hence the order of the "pairs de France," of which six were laics and six clerics. The six temporal, or laics, were the dukes of Normandy, Aquitaine, and Burgundy, the counts of Toulouse, Flanders, and Champagne; the clerics, or spiritual peers, were to consist of the Archbishop of Rheims, and five bishops. John next quarrelled with the pope, who claimed the nomination of the archbishopric of Canterbury, when England was placed under an interdict, and two years after John himself was excommunicated. The pope, to humble the

power of the king, who still retained his firmness, proposed to Philip of France the absolution of his sins, and the kingdom of England, provided he would rid the church of such an oppressor. Philip, therefore, leagued with the disaffected barons, and assembled a large army for the purpose of invasion. John now implored the protection of Rome, when the papal legate, under the plausible pretext of securing England from the attacks of France, persuaded John to surrender the kingdom into the hands of the pope, to swear allegiance to him as lord paramount, and afterwards to receive it back as a fief of the holy see, paying an annual tribute of 1,000 silver marks for the same. Philip was now forbidden to attack a kingdom which had been made a part of the patrimony of St. Peter, and therefore turned his arms against the Flemings. Otho, the German emperor, and the nephew of John, in alliance with him, resisted the invasion of Philip, whose fleet of 1,700 ships was surprised by the English fleet, consisting of 500 sail, and completely routed; 100 were burnt, and upwards of 300 captured, with the whole ammunition and provisions of the French army. This, the first great naval battle between the two nations, for a while compelled Philip to abandon the enterprise. In 1214, the rival armies met at Bouvines, when Philip, by the valour of his infantry, obtained a complete victory; Otho and Philip, however, narrowly escaped with their lives. In 1215, on the invitation of the barons, disgusted with the conduct of John, the crown of England was offered to the son of Louis, who for a short time was acknowledged as king of England. He however obtained possession of a very small portion of the country, and in less than a year after his arrival, was, on the death of John, deserted by the barons, and compelled to depart. Philip II. died 1223, and was succeeded by the feeble Louis VIII., who however took Niort, and La Rochelle, with Poitou, from the English, who now only retained Gascony. He died, while carrying on the war of extermination against the Albigenses, in 1226, and was succeeded by Louis IX., under the regency of his mother, Blanche, of Castile; which was chiefly employed in resisting the powerful barons of Brittany and Champagne, and carrying on the war against the Albigenses, terminated by the acquisition of Languedoc. In 1259, a treaty was concluded by Louis with Henry III. of England, which confirmed the latter in the possession of the four provinces of Perigord,

the Limousin, the Agenois, and a part of Saintonges, as fiefs. In return, Henry abandoned Normandy and Poitou, and did homage as a peer of France, under the title of the duke of Guienne. The latter portion of the reign of Louis was employed in ameliorating the condition of his subjects, and in framing laws to repress the private wars of the feudal nobility. Duels or judicial combats were forbidden; and appeals from the local courts of the barons were encouraged, by which the lower and middling classes were protected from the injustice and oppression of the nobles. In 1268, the edict, termed the pragmatic section, was issued, which laid the foundation of the liberties of the Gallican church, and gave to the churches the right of electing their superiors, independently of the pope, and allowed church preferment and promotion to be carried on as formerly, without regard to any edict which might be issued from the papal see.

The Crusades against the Albigenses in Southern France.

The inhabitants of Southern France were greatly in advance of their countrymen in the north. They were foremost in civilization; probably the result of their thriving commerce, and the superior municipal liberties which they enjoyed. The feudal barons of the south mingled more with the burghesses, than those of the north, and hence communicated to the middle classes not a little of the chivalrous spirit of the nobles. To this may be attributed their abhorrence of the dogmas and corruptions of the church of Rome. They were named Valdenses or Albigenses, and some sects were distinguished by the names *Catharins*, *Patarins*, and *Pauvres de Lyons*. The chief counts of the Languedoc territory, or Southern France, were Raymond, count of Toulouse, and Raymond Roger, viscount of Beziers and Carcassonne. These nobles at least countenanced the Albigenses, being witnesses of their purity in morals, and their sincerity in devotion. The Count of Toulouse was reproached by the bishop of the diocese, and the papal legate, for not exterminating the heretics by fire and sword. The legate even excommunicated Raymond, and grossly insulted him in his own court, which led (as in the case of à Becket) to the assassination of the legate, and so enraged the unscrupulous pontiff, Innocent III., that he issued a crusade against the count, and called upon the king, and all the nobility and prelates of France, to join in the *holy* war, promising them, at the same time, large privileges and indulgences, spoil, riches, and honours in this world, and final and certain salvation in heaven. At the same time, to arrest the heresy, a new order was instituted, that of St. Dominic (friars inquisitors), who went about in pairs, first to seek out their prey, and then to destroy it. The army of 300,000 fanatics which invaded Languedoc, overcame the feeble courage of the count, who passed over to the crusaders, delivered up his fortresses, and underwent a public scourging in the church of St. Gillies. Count Roger also

offered to make submission, but as this would probably have ended the affair, by leaving the Albigenses wholly unprotected, and so prevented the punishment of the heretics, it was declined. Roger now prepared to defend Beziers and Carcassonne. The former was first attacked; but as the population was mixed, the Abbot of Citeaux (legate commander) was appealed to, to determine how the innocent were to be distinguished from the guilty. "Kill them all," replied the christian(!) legate, "the Lord will easily know his own." Acting upon this advice, the crusaders, on entering the town, massacred the entire population, sparing neither woman nor infant. Upwards of 20,000 human beings were the first-fruits of this European crusade. On the fall of Beziers, the crusaders proceeded to attack the city of Carcassonne, to which place Roger had contrived to escape. Two attacks upon the city were bravely repulsed, when the legate, fearing the consequences of prolonging the war to a great extent, had recourse to trickery and perfidy. He offered the count and the barons of his army a safe conduct, on the surrender of the city, which was accepted. Roger, with 300 of his retinue, presented themselves before the legate, when he exclaimed, "Faith is not to be kept with those who are without faith," and ordered them all to be put in chains. The inhabitants of the city, forsaken by their leaders, fled. A general assembly was now summoned by the legate, at which it was decided that Beziers and Carcassonne should be the reward of Simon de Montfort (earl of Liecester), the most forward and valiant of the crusaders. To him also was committed the custody of Roger, by whom he was poisoned a short time after. Numberless executions, at the stake and on the scaffold, succeeded, the principal victims for which were supplied by the zeal of the Dominican friars.

The repeated cruelty and barbarity practised upon the unoffending Albigenses, at length led the whole body of the Toulousans to revolt, and Peter of Arragon, the uncle of Roger, took the command. He, however, proved to be no match for Montfort, by whom he was defeated and slain at Muret. Montfort was now lord of all the county of Toulouse, the city of which he seized for himself, with the whole of the territory, under the sanction of the Council of Lateran, 1216. He was acknowledged by Philip II., who received his homage as Duke of Narbonne, Count of Toulouse, and Viscount of Beziers and Carcassonne. In 1217, the cruelty and violence of the unrelenting Montfort, produced another revolt of the Toulousans, who were headed by a son of the former count, young Raymond, who had, to the dismay of the papal see, considerably broken the power of Montfort, whose career was now cut short by death. A huge stone discharged from a mangonel on the walls of a town he was besieging, terminated his fanatical and guilty career. Montfort was succeeded by his son Amanry, who, being unable to defend himself against the house of Toulouse, was at last driven to offer the whole of Languedoc to Philip, which his age and declining strength alone compelled him to resign. In 1226, Amanry being signally defeated by Raymond, fled to Paris, and laid his possessions at the feet of Louis, who had succeeded Philip. They were accepted, and the office of constable promised him. The expulsion of Amanry also quickened the expiring zeal of the pope, who had a new crusade preached up against the Albigenses. Louis entered Languedoc

at the head of a numerous army, and arrived at Avignon, the citizens of which refused to admit so vast an assemblage within her walls. Louis indignantly commanded the siege of the town to be formed, determined to be revenged. After a lapse of three months, during which he lost upwards of 20,000 men, either by disease and famine, or by the attacks of the Avignonais, the city capitulated, but on honourable terms. Languedoc now became an easy conquest, but proved fatal to Philip, who died of an epidemy peculiar to the conquered regions. During the minority of Louis, under the regency of his mother, Blanche, the war again broke out, marked by atrocious cruelty on both sides. In 1229, Raymond was reduced to make an almost unconditional surrender of the whole of his territories: those situated in France devolved upon Louis IX., while those in Arles were claimed by the papal legate. A small fief allowed to be retained by the count for his support, was, at his death, to pass to his daughter, whom he engaged should be allied to the brother of the French monarch. Thus the whole fell into the hands of the crown.

III. For the Crusades of Louis VII., Philip II., and Louis IX. (the Saint), see § 34.

§ 40.

ENGLAND, 1066—1272.

a. Under Norman Kings, 1066—1154.

1. William I. † 1057.

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| Robert, duke of Normandy. | 2. William II., † 1100. | 3. Henry I., † 1135. Matilda, married to Godfrey Plantagenet, count of Anjou. | Adelaide, married to Stephen, count of Blois. 4. Stephen, King, † 1154. |
| | | 1. Henry II., † 1189. | |

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| 2. Richard I., Cœur de Lion, † 1199. | Godfrey. Arthur, duke of Bretagne (Brittany). | 3. John (Lackland), † 1216. 4. Henry III., 1272. |
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1. William the Conqueror (I., 1066—1087) was the fifth duke of Normandy in lineal descent from Rolla. After the defeat of Harold at Senglac (Battle), he took Dofre (Dover) Castle, to secure a free communication with Normandy, and gradually drew his troops round London, build-

ing a place near the Thames for the shelter of his army (the Tower of London). In 1066 he was crowned at West Mynster, and was proclaimed rightful King of England. Seven years of active warfare, however, were required to subdue the opposition of the Anglo-Saxons, and to place William in full possession of his kingdom, when the valiant Hereward made peace with the king, who soon after connived at his assassination. Sixteen Normans, however, fell by the single arm of Hereward before he expired. To secure himself in his new dominions, fortresses and castles were constructed throughout the country, and garrisoned by Normans; and the lands and offices of trust, of which he deprived the Anglo-Saxons, were distributed among his followers. The land, which was confiscated on being subdued, was divided into 60,215 portions. To the clergy one-third was given, and to the barons one-half. Military service, however, was required of the ecclesiastics, no less than of the temporal barons. The remainder of the land was retained by the crown. To render the spoliation more complete, the Anglo-Saxon bishops were deposed on various pretexts, and their revenues devoted to the rewarding of the Norman adventurers. William having settled the territorial divisions of the land, provided for the better administration of justice. He separated the ecclesiastical from the temporal courts, and freed the civil judge from the power and dominion of the ecclesiastical, making the compulsory operations of the latter to depend on appeals to the secular power. He enforced the laws against simony and the loose, immoral lives of the Roman clergy; and although grateful to the pope for the favours which were granted to him, yet he refused to acknowledge his supremacy, and maintained his independence, refusing even Hildebrand the homage he demanded. In the reign of the Conqueror, the feudal system was at least completed, if not first introduced into England. William became chief lord, but his authority only extended over his own domains. The lord who alone had any claim to the military service of the people of a district, was the only person who exercised any authority in it; he could lead his vassals against his weaker neighbours, and was the guardian of his subordinate tenants: hence the disposal of his wards, male as well as female, in marriage, devolved upon him. The greater portion of the people was therefore in a state of abject dependence, if not of personal slavery. In 1087, William hastened to Nor-

mandy, to suppress the revolt of his son Robert, to whom he had promised the duchy, but had refused to surrender it. His horse having rushed into the burning ruins of the town of Mantes, he plunged so violently as to injure the king to such an extent, that, on his being carried to the abbey of St. Gervas, he died.

2. William II., surnamed the Red (Rufus), left Rouen immediately on the death of his father, and was proclaimed king of England at West Mynster, by Lanfranc, who advised him to distribute the immense riches of his father, so as to repair, in some degree, the effect of his crimes. Shortly after his accession, a rebellion broke out among the new nobility of England, fostered by Robert, the brother of William, who had been excluded from the throne of England, and made duke of Normandy. William, alarmed, appealed to the English, who, having assisted him in quelling it, were rewarded with considerable concessions, and from this period began to make some progress towards their former position, as possessors of the soil. After an inglorious reign, marked by plunder and extortion, to support his sensual pleasures, and to enrich his favourites, he met with death accidentally, while hunting in the new forest. An arrow from the bow of Sir Walter Tyrrell pierced his breast, and killed him, 1100.

3. The younger son of the Conqueror, Henry I, surnamed Beauclerk; succeeded to the throne. Like his predecessors, he did not wait until the funeral obsequies had been performed, but hastened first to Winchester, to seize the yet unappropriated riches of the king, and then to London, to crush at once the few adherents of his elder brother, Robert, on a crusade in Palestine. Five days after the death of William, Henry was crowned, and on the following day issued a charter in favour of the Anglo-Saxons, declaring that "he would govern by the laws of King Edward, as altered of his father." To his feudal vassals he promised considerable relief; the celebrated Anselm was restored to his primacy, and the church was again to possess its rights, while the wards within his jurisdiction were to be dealt with justly, and with equity. In 1106, Robert returned from the crusades, and being invited by some powerful barons, made a descent upon England, to wrest the crown from the hands of the usurper. A treaty, however, was signed, by which Robert was to receive Normandy, and Henry to retain England. On the return of the

former to Normandy, he regretted his agreement, and gave utterance to some expressions which excited the anger of Henry, who invaded Normandy, and after defeating Robert at Tenchebrai, sent him a prisoner to England. He attempted to escape, when his eyes were put out by the command of Henry: he expired at Cardiff Castle, at the age of eighty years. Henry, to secure the succession to the throne in his family, procured the right of succession to the female branch of the royal house, and caused his daughter Maud, to whom he had given in marriage Geoffrey Plantagenet, to be acknowledged by the nobles and prelates of England, the king of the Scots, and Stephen, the earl of Boulogne, who took the oath of fealty at Northampton, and, on the birth of a prince, again at Oxford, 1133. Two years after, the king died in Normandy, of a surfeit, and thus concluded an unquiet reign of thirty-six years (1135).

Stephen of Blois and Earl of Boulogne, although he had not the least title to the throne, hastened to London, and procured his coronation at West Mynster. He was, however, opposed by the Earl of Exeter, and King David of Scotland, on the part of Maud; but vanquished both; the latter, for the second time, at the battle of the Standard, at North Allertune (Northallerton). In 1139, a more formidable attempt was made on behalf of the queen, headed by the Earl of Gloucester, a natural son of the late king, whose army at length defeated Stephen at Lincoln, in 1141, and took him prisoner. Maud was then declared queen, but the triumph was short. Civil wars continued to rage, marked by rapine, murder, and sacrilege, until 1153, when, at a council held at Winchester, it was agreed that Stephen should retain the crown during his life, and that Henry, the son of Matilda, should be adopted as his successor. He survived this treaty only twelve months, and closed his tumultuous life in 1154.

Under the four first Kings of the House of Anjou and Plantagenet.

Henry Plantagenet, besides the throne of England, which he ascended without opposition, as the heir of his mother, possessed Normandy, and held a feudal right over Brittany, and, by the death of his father, he succeeded to the territories of Anjou. In 1150, by his marriage with the divorced wife of the younger Louis (Eleanora), he became lord of Western France, from Flanders to the Pyrenees. Thus Henry pos-

essed far greater territories than his liege lord, who scarcely ruled, except nominally, over a tenth part of France.

The first steps of Henry were those of a reformer; he compelled the nobles created by Stephen, to restore to him the possession of the royal castles, and commanded the Flemings who had assisted that monarch, to leave the kingdom; and also restored the adulterated coin to its true value. The most memorable transaction of Henry's reign was the invasion of Ireland, for which he obtained the sanction of Pope Adrian, on condition of his collecting the Peter-pence for the papal see. In 1172, the provinces of Leinster and Munster were subdued, and fortresses and castles erected over the entire territory, which were garrisoned by Norman soldiers. A large portion of the land was presented by the king to Robert Fitz Stephen, as a reward for his services, while Henry himself took the title of Lord of all Hibernia.

In 1162, Thomas à Becket was promoted to the archbishopric of Canterbury, when England was called upon to participate in that contest between the papal church and the state, which had, for upwards of a century, destroyed the peace of central Europe. The clergy were independent of the secular arm of the law: their scandalous and atrocious crimes, therefore, passed unpunished. Henry endeavoured to reform this state of things, and, after much litigation, procured the consent of the bishops, including à Becket himself, to the effect that any clerk guilty of crimes should be degraded, and handed over to the secular officers for punishment. To give the form of law to this agreement, a general council was held at Clarendon (1164), to confirm it in the shape of sixteen articles, known afterwards as "The Constitution of Clarendon." A Becket soon after repented of this concession of the church, and did penance for it. Having been commanded to render an account of the rents and profits arising from the royal domains of Eye and Berkhamstead, he attempted to leave England, but was arrested, and afterwards arraigned before the barons, for offending against the laws of Clarendon. On sentence being pronounced, he at once quitted the council-chamber, and finally escaped to France, where the pope then was, at Seuz. After considerable litigation and violent proceedings on both sides, a pacification was entered into: à Becket was to be restored to his see, and the statutes of Clarendon were passed over in silence. Thomas à Becket, however, did not as he was bound to do, remove the ecclesiastical censure from the prelates, which had been inflicted upon them for their adherence to their sovereign. The Archbishop of York, and the bishops of London and Salisbury, therefore went to France, to make complaints to the king. In the meanwhile, à Becket had excommunicated another servant of the king, for having formerly been opposed to him. On this reaching the ears of Henry, he exclaimed, "is there no one to deliver me out of my troubles!" This and similar expressions were construed into a com-

mand to rid him of the haughty prelate. Four knights repaired at once to Canterbury, in the cathedral church of which, while engaged in the evening vespers, he perished, before the altar of St. Bennet, uttering, as his last words, "To God and St. Mary I commend my soul and the church." The murderers fled to Knaresborough Castle, and afterwards did penance, by a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, where they died, and were buried before the temple gate. Henry, who had not meditated the death of this extraordinary but unamiable man, sent an embassy to Rome, by whom he was compelled to swear allegiance to the holy see, and to promise restoration of all goods, and freely to pardon all the companions of the archbishop. These terms, and some others, having been agreed upon, the two nuncios appointed by the pope, absolved the king, and restored the country once more to peace. In the following year, à Becket was canonized as a saint, and Henry, to gratify the people, made a most humiliating pilgrimage to his tomb.

In 1169 commenced a series of civil wars, consequent on the rebellion of the young princes, fostered by the incensed Queen Eleanor. At one time they were in a state of combination, fighting against the king, their father, who had generously raised them to the ranks of kings and princes; and at another, maintaining a deadly conflict against each other. At length, on the final rebellion of his sons Richard and John, aided by the French king and Eleanor, who, in male attire, headed her own army, the strength of the king gave way, and he died at Chinon castle, 1189.

During the reign of Henry, England was divided into six circuits, which were to be visited by three itinerant justices, so as to render the distribution of the law easy to the appellant. The grand assize was also established, and the ordeal by fire, etc., abandoned. The trial by single combat, however, remained.

Richard (I.) Cœur de Lion (1189—1199) was rather a crusader than a sovereign, and his exploits are to be sought for, not in the history of his own country, but in that of Asia. He spent three years in the third crusade, and was two years confined a prisoner in Austria. In 1194, after a mock trial, the only object of which was to extort a heavy ransom, the Emperor Henry VI. released his prisoner, who landed in England, to the great joy of all his subjects. Richard, on his liberation, found that his brother John, supported by Philip of France, had filled England and Normandy with commotion: hence Richard was immediately plunged into a war for the recovery of Normandy, of which province one town (Rouen) at least remained. The faithless John sheltered himself in Ervieux. Richard fought with his usual bravery and success against his enemies; but at length fell by the

arrow of Bertrand de Gourdon, before the castle of Chaluz Chabrol, the feudal residence of one of his rebellious vassals, in the Limousin, 1199.

JOHN (Lack-land), 1199—1216.—On the death of Richard, there were two rivals for the English crown: John, the eldest brother of the late king, and Arthur, the son of Geoffrey (deceased), the elder brother of John. The English provinces in France, excepting Normandy and Guienne, were in favour of Arthur, who was compelled to take refuge at the court of Philip, by his uncle John, who possessed himself of the royal treasures, and despatched the primate Herbert to England, to obtain for him the support of the barons. He was crowned at West Mynster, having been, according to the words of the primate, elected by the nation. (For John's disputes with the pope, see § 39.) In 1213, in consequence of the attempts of John to crush the liberties of his subjects, which he had himself granted at the council of St. Albans, agreeably to the charter of Henry I., a confederacy was formed among the barons, headed by the Archbishop Langton. They met at St. Edmund's Bury, where they swore to withdraw their fealty, and to wage war against him, until their requests were granted. A petition was drawn up and presented to the king, who solicited time for consideration. Both parties, however, meanwhile prepared vigorously for war. After a short time, the city of London joined the confederacy, and opened their gates to the followers of the barons. The pope interfered on his behalf, and issued his bull, which was, however, treated with contempt by the whole nation. John, at last, was deserted by all the nobility, and retired to Odiham, with only seven attendants. Under a promise of safe custody from the king, deputies from the barons were received at Staines, who agreed to meet at Runny Meide on the Trinity Monday following, where the armies of both parties encamped, and the conferences commenced. On the Friday following, the articles were drawn up, and reduced to the form of a charter, in which state it was issued as a royal grant (*Magna Charta libertatum*), 1215. To keep the faithless king in check, the city and fortress of London was to be retained by the barons, until all things were finally arranged; and twenty-five barons were appointed as guardians of the liberties embodied and expressed in the charter, with full powers to make war on the king, upon the breach of any one of the

articles contained therein. John felt indignant at being compelled to submit to such humiliating conditions, and obtained the help of the pope, who absolved him from his oaths, and excommunicated the barons, whom, in the bull, were declared to be worse than the infidel Turks. John, having obtained a large army of German mercenaries, overran the country. The barons, in their distress, sought aid from France, and offered the crown to Louis, the son of the French king. The death of John at Newark, however, closed the troublous scene, and put an end to the opposition of the barons, and the hopes of the French monarch, whose son was soon after completely deserted, and took his departure from the English shores.

4. HENRY III. (1216—1272) ascended the throne, and was crowned at Gloucester, in the tenth year of his age, the Earl of Pembroke taking the government of the kingdom. Louis, the son of the French monarch, kept the field against Pembroke for some months. Robert Fitzwalter, and other barons, considered themselves bound to assist the French prince; and it was not until after a terrible conflict in the streets of Lincoln, between the troops of the regent, and those of Louis and the confederate barons, that he took his departure. Peace being restored, the great Pembroke attended to the civil welfare of the kingdom, and extended the provisions of the charter to Ireland, and enforced its observance in every county of England. He died 1220, and was succeeded in the regency by Hugh de Burgh, a cruel baron of the then old court faction, or favourers of the late King John. In 1223, a bull from the pope was obtained, declaring the young prince competent to exercise the royal authority; and about the same time the confirmation of the great charter was demanded: it was, however, opposed. In the year 1225, on the final loss of Port Rochelle, a council was held at West Mynster, to decide upon the raising of a subsidy to defray the expenses of an expedition into France, that the patrimonial possessions of the prelates and barons might, if possible, be regained. The barons, who had demanded the renewal of the charter, resolutely refused, until the grievance was redressed. Hence, soon after, the great charter was re-established by the council, and the subsidy was collected throughout the kingdom. Rochelle, however, was not retaken. In 1227, the parliament (and the pope, for the second time) declared the young king eligible to reign. De Burgh had become unpopular, and Henry, who

endeavoured, on the accession of Louis IX., to regain the French possessions, returned, in 1230, disgraced and vanquished. On his applying to the council for another subsidy, necessary, as he alleged, in consequence of the expenses of the war, but really occasioned by his extravagance and prodigality, the assembly refused, declaring, through the Earl of Chester, that the barons were suffering from the same causes as himself. De Burgh was succeeded by Peter, the bishop of Winchester, a bold, intrepid prelate, who, on his elevation, promoted his countrymen of Poitou, and so offended the nobles, that they refused to attend the council when summoned. He soon lost the royal favour; and his fellow-countrymen were commanded to leave the kingdom. In 1236, Henry was married to Eleanor of Provence, and foreign favourites again occupied the higher offices of the state. His exactions from the parliament became more frequent; the towns and cities were taxed contrary to the provisions of the charter; and the oppressed Jews were occasionally massacred, and frequently imprisoned, to furnish supplies of money for the support of the extravagancies of the king. These, and other iniquitous proceedings, were, at length, put an end to by the parliament holden at Oxford, 1258, when twenty-four barons were appointed to redress grievances, and reform the state. Knights were also elected to inform the parliament of the breaches of the law committed in their respective counties. This government existed many years. In 1262, Henry endeavoured to release himself from its obligations, but was prevented by the young Prince Edward, who was determined to act with integrity. The collision between the king and the barons, who were headed by Simon de Montfort, led to an appeal to Louis of France, who pronounced for the liberties of the charter, and the restoration of all royal rights and possessions to the king. The barons were not satisfied with a decision which provided only a temporary, not a substantial, relief, and therefore again armed against the sovereign (1265). The military genius of Edward now appeared, and brought two successive victories to the royalists. London was taken, and the inhabitants slaughtered. At Lewes, however, Leicester triumphed, and the king and his valiant son were taken prisoners, and compelled to transfer the government of the kingdom upon Leicester and Gloucester. Edward, however, contrived to escape, and again joined the royalist army. In 1265,

the baronial army, and that of the royalists, met at Evesham, when the great Leicester was surrounded and slain, in the vain endeavour to rouse the valour of his army, the lines of which had given way. They were defeated with great slaughter, and the power of the barons completely destroyed. The followers of the illustrious Leicester were proscribed, and their lands confiscated. The Earl of Gloucester soon after laid down his arms, and Edward entered the Isle of Ely as a conqueror. On the peace of the kingdom being restored, Edward engaged in the crusades, and the remaining years of Henry were spent in acts of little importance: he died, 1272.

On the loss of the English possessions in France, the national hatred between the Saxons of England and the Normans of France, gradually disappeared, and those foreign elements with which the minds both of the nobility and the people had been imbued, began to subside, and slowly to manifest itself in efforts on behalf of constitutional freedom, or the true development of the national English character. The great charter wrung from the faithless King John, checked, at the same time, the arbitrary rule of the sovereign, and the imperious rule of the feudal nobility, while it at the same time secured great immunities to all the burghs and cities throughout the kingdom. Aids and subsidies could not be raised but by the consent of the council, which was, however, not a representative body, but an assembly of the prelates and greater barons, assisted by the immediate tenants, or fiefholders, of the crown. No freeman could now be imprisoned, or otherwise punished, without a trial by his peers. During the troublous but eventful reign of the third Henry, the charter proved an invaluable shield against the unjust demands of that prodigal sovereign. On several occasions did the parliament refuse to accede to his requests, until the king had promised to be bound by the great charter. At length, on the frequent breaches of the king, four barons were elected by the assembly to watch over the judicial affairs of the land, and the expenditure of the revenue. Two judges and two barons of the exchequer were appointed, beside others, and these were also to be independent of the crown. Thus early was a parliamentary control over the supplies exercised, and the appointment of advisers, or ministers, of the crown established. In 1258, a still more important step was taken, when twenty-four barons were elected to watch over the affairs of the kingdom, and to reform the state, under the parliament, which was to consist of four elective knights from each county. Thus a nearer approach to that popular administration which followed, in 1265, was effected, when writs were issued requiring the sheriffs of counties to elect and return two knights for each county, two citizens for each city, and two burgesses for every burgh in the county. Thus a permanent assembly was established, capable of checking, at the same time, the unjust tyranny both of the sovereign and the nobility. This new constitution of the assembly by Simon de Montfort, is supposed, by some, but without sufficient reason, to have been made for the purpose of ingratiating himself with the

lower orders. But, be this as it may, he has immortalized his name by the constitution of an assembly which has ever since been found the best for the government of a free country, and made the model of all the rest which have been established. It was the first exhibition in recent times of the fusion of monarchy, nobility, and democracy.

§ 41.

SPAIN.

Arabian or Mohammedan Spain.

Jusef, the Arabian prince of the Mohammedan states of Spain, continued to reign, in comparative tranquillity, until his death, at the advanced age of 100 years, when he left his kingdom to Aly, his son, who almost immediately commenced a war against the Christian states. His authority was not, however, firmly established, and on the rebellion of the *Mehedi* in Africa, he had to retire from the invasion of Castile, and to make peace with the insurgents of Cordova, who had revolted during his absence. On passing over into Africa, he was unsuccessful. His armies were constantly defeated by the generals of the Almohade caliph, whose emissaries also overrun the Mohammedan possessions in Spain, excepting Granada. At length, Aly died of vexation, and his son Taxfin, after a gallant resistance, was compelled to fly (1146). Abdelmumen, the prince of the Almohades, of Marocco, put all the royal family to death, and the Almoravides were compelled to take shelter in the Balearic Isles. Arabian Spain was now united with Marocco. In 1163, Abdelmumen died.

Abdelmumen was the reviver of science and literature: he was a proficient in jurisprudence, mathematics, and medicine. He was, however, greater still as a philosopher; he translated Aristotle, and was a voluminous writer on the peripatetic philosophy: hence his surname of commentator.

Jusef succeeded his father, Abdelmumen, and was slain while before Seville, which was besieged by mistake, in lieu of Lisbon. Jacob, his son, who was in Africa, in 1195, entered Spain, and conquered Alfonso at Alarcos. Abdallah followed, and began his reign brilliantly. He subdued the Almoravides in the Balearic Isles, but was signally defeated by the combined armies of the kings of Castile, Arragon, and Navarre, in the plains of Tolosa, near Ubeda. Sixty thousand Moors were taken prisoners, while 100,000 were left dead on the field of battle. Mohammed Abdallah fled to Marocco, where he died, 1212. His successors, a feeble race, allowed the

Christian kings of Castile and Navarre to wrest from them nearly all their possessions. The little kingdom of Granada remained yet in the hands of the Almohadites. *Walis*, or kings, as numerous as the chief cities, had established themselves over the whole of the remaining Mohammedan dominions. In 1230, the last Almohade candidate for sovereignty died, and left his dominions to the Prince of Jaen, who founded the kingdom of Granada, the last bright relic of Mohammedan Spain: he died, 1248.

To Mohammed, Granada was indebted for great prosperity; he patronised the arts and sciences, adorned the cities with baths, fountains, and palaces, the most splendid of which, the Alhambra, was left unfinished at his death. The schools and hospitals he visited personally, and gave audience to all classes of persons indiscriminately. He caused the land to be artificially irrigated, and thus extended the science of agriculture, while the labours of the loom surpassed those of Asia. Gold and silver mines were opened, and extensively worked, so that the people of Granada during his reign, Christians no less than Moslems, were the most numerous and prosperous of the whole of the peninsula, if not of Europe.

Mohammed II. was a feeble prince. Civil wars engrossed the whole period of his reign; the Christians of Castile, and the Moors of Granada, being engaged in a conflict against the Christians of Portugal and Arragon, and the Moors of Marocco, who supported the aged Alfonzo against his son, the usurper Sancho the Brave. In 1282, Mohammed broke off his alliance with Sancho, who soon after turned his arms successfully against his late ally. On his sudden death, 1295, Mohammed recovered his losses, and concluded a peace. In 1302, he died, and was succeeded by his son, Mohammed III.

2. Christian Spain (see § 33).

During the period in which the above events took place in Arabian Spain, Christian Spain, which embraced the kingdoms of Navarre, Arragon, Leon, and Castile, were constantly engaged in warfare, either against each other, or against the Mohammedans, from whom several fine provinces were wrested; as Cordova, Murcia, and Seville. To these wars against the Moslems is to be attributed the formation of the several religious and military orders, which were distributed over the whole of the Christian portion of the peninsula. The most ancient was that of Alcantara (1158), the offshoot of the order of Calatrava (1156). The order of St. Jago de Compostella (1161) was composed of a number of dissolute prodigals, who had dissipated their hereditary fortunes in profligacy, and turned robbers; to expiate their crimes, they dedicated the rest of their lives to the service of the church, against the unbelievers. They

wore a decoration, consisting of a red cross in the form of a sword, while the former order wore a red cross also, in the form of the lily. The order of Montesa (1317) took the place of the Templars (see p. 163) in the kingdom of Arragon. The kingdoms benefited by the exertions of the chivalrous knights of these orders were Castile and Leon, which were united into one for seventy-three years, from 1157 to 1230, and considerably enlarged by the conquest of nearly all the Moorish provinces. Navarre was in 1284 added to France, and Valencia, the Balearic Isles, and the county of Barcelona were annexed to Arragon, the former by conquest, the latter by the marriage of Count Berenger with the heiress of the sovereign of Arragon, his former ally against the Mohammedans. The new kingdom of Portugal, in 1253, wrested from the Moors the valuable province of Algarbe.

§ 42.

THE BYZANTINE (GREEK) EMPIRE.

1. Under the Comneni and Ducas (1057—1185). The Byzantine empire still formed the chief bulwark of the Christian world in the East. It stood firm against the attacks of the Arabs, and resisted the aggressions of the powerful Seldjukian Turks, who were established in the very heart of the Minor Asia. The Macedonian line of regents having occupied the throne two centuries, the soldiers raised one of their companions in arms to the throne, in opposition to Michael VI.,—Isaac Comnenus, a man belonging to one of the most noble families in the empire. Michael soon after resigned, and Isaac, having ruled for two years, justly and vigorously, retired to a convent, oppressed with bodily infirmities. His successor, Constantine Ducas, a friend of the house of Comneni, next assumed the purple, but although an upright monarch, was no warrior, and therefore not able to compete with the Turks, now ravaging the empire.

At his death Constantine left the empire to his wife (Eudocia), in trust for his three sons, on condition that she remained unmarried. In less than seven months, however, she married and raised to the throne Romanus Diogenes, a man of noble mind, and great military talents. In a war against the Seldjukian Turks, being betrayed by the nobles, he was defeated, and taken prisoner by the sultan, who treated him with the greatest respect, and soon after restored him to liberty. On his return, he found the empress imprisoned in a convent, and the usurper, Michael VII., seated upon the throne. On endeavouring to regain the sovereignty, he was treacherously betrayed into the hands of Michael, who had his eyes put out, and afterwards threw him into a prison.

During the period of the above transactions, the greater portion of Asia Minor had been seized by the Seldjukian Turks, under Sulliman, who erected the sultanate of Rum, or Iconium, and Lower Italy also had fallen into the hands of the Normans. On the re-accession of the house of Comneni, a new order of things commenced. The three emperors of this dynasty, *Alexius Comnenus*, his son, *Kalo Johannes*, and grandson, *Manuel I.*, occupied the throne for 100 years (1081—1180). The first mentioned considerably enriched himself by the passing over into Asia of the numerous crusading armies, and each in turn bravely defending the frontiers of the empire against the Seldjuks in the east, the Normans in Lower Italy and Illyrium, and the Petchenejuns and Cumans in the north, besides the intestine struggles, and numerous conspiracies, which took place with the empire itself. *Manuel II.* handed down the empire in an unimpaired state to his son, *Alexius II.*, a minor, who, after reigning two years, was dethroned, and cruelly put to death by his treacherous guardian and relative, *Andronicus*, who, in his turn, after a cruel reign of two years, was put to death, in an insurrection raised against him by *Isaac Angelus*, a collateral relative of the Comneni, who had once been given over into the hands of the executioner, to suffer a violent death, in opposition to the united voice of the populace.

2. Under the House of Angelus, 1185—1204.

The weak *Isaac Angelus* was unable to quell the insurrection of the Bulgares, or to prevent their assuming an independence of the empire; he also lost the important island of Cyprus. In 1194, he was dethroned and blinded, by his brother, *Alexius III.*, and afterwards thrown into prison. His son *Alexius*, sought the aid of the Venetian and French crusaders, who engaged, under certain considerations, to restore the throne to his father. Constantinople fell; *Isaac* was taken from prison, and his son, *Alexius IV.*, seated on the throne (see page 156). *Isaac* and *Alexius* were soon after murdered by the adverse party, and, under the pretext of avenging their deaths, the crusaders, under Count *Baldwin*, took the capital, and divided the empire among themselves, and thus established the

Latin Empire (1204—1261), which proved an abortive attempt to transfer the learning and rude manners of the

West to the then more civilized and cultivated countries of the East. For an account of the foundation and extinction of the kingdoms and states erected by the Latins, and the empire of Nicæa and Trapezunt established by the princes of the house of Paleologus (see page 157).

§ 43.

THE ARABIANS.

The caliphate of the Abbasides was put an end to in 1258 by the Mongols, who besieged Baghdat, the only city remaining in the possession of the caliphs. The "city of peace" was taken by treachery, and after being plundered for forty days, during which 200,000 princes were slaughtered, the fifty-sixth successor of Mohammed was sewn up in a cow's hide, and dragged by the barbarous conquerors through the streets of the city. All their forts were seized, and the sect of the *Assassins* destroyed. Hakim, one of the princes of the house of Abbas, however, contrived to escape to Egypt, where he was kindly received by the Sultan Bibers, who appointed him a residence at Cairo (Cayhir), where he exercised spiritual supremacy only. Here his descendants were supported by the bounty of the Mameluke sultans, until the conquest of that country by the Turks, 1517.

Of the African Dynasties, the Aglabides and Edrisides during the preceding period had become extinct, and the Fatimides in Egypt were overthrown by Nouredin (comp. page 154). The Marabethes, who had founded the caliphate and city of Marocco, and conquered southern Spain, were expelled by the Almohades, whose supremacy also ceased, 1269, when the whole of Africa fell into the possession of the three dynasties of the Abu Hassians, the Merenides, and the Lianides.

§ 44.

THE MONGOLS.

The Mongols, or Moguls (a nomade race), closely connected with the Huns, inhabited the great steppes and plains lying between the south of Siberia and the desert of Gobi, as far as the greater Bucharina, or the country between Eastern Turkey and Bucharina. They are generally confounded with the Tartars, but they differ so widely from the Tartar race, both in their appearance and manners, as well as in their religion, and political institutions, that there is every reason to

conclude that they form two distinct nations. The Mongols owe their elevation to their first Khan, Ghenghis, whose exploits were against the chiefs of other hordes. Emboldened by success, he undertook to conquer the world, and at an assembly of the chiefs, whose government was absolute and hereditary (1206), he was elected Tschinghis, or Ghenghis Khan (most great emperor, or khan of khans). The mongols raised their hands, and swore to follow their leader, even to the end of the earth. Ghenghis broke up the encampments on the banks of the Onon and Kerlon (the scene of the election), and first subdued the two empires of the Tartars, that of the Kin in Eastern Tartary, and in Northern China, and that of the Kara Kitai in Western Tartary, whose capital was Kasehgar. He next proceeded against the powerful monarchy ruled over by Mohammed, the sultan of the Chowarezmians, whose dominions extended over nearly the whole of Persia (to the Caspian) and Hindostan, or India. The army of 400,000 brought into the field by the sultan was defeated, and his country, after six campaigns, completely subdued. The country adjacent to the Caspian being already conquered, the territories of the Russians were invaded. The Grand Prince of Kiof, and other princes, combined, and met the Mongols on the banks of the Kalka, when they were signally defeated, and put to flight (1224). In 1227, after having subdued the whole of Tangut, Ghenghis died, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, not however before he had given the Mongol nation laws and regulations, by which they were to be governed by his successors. The sons and grandsons of Ghenghis, followed him in his career of victory. The armies of Octai were despatched from central China, in which country three of the sons of Ghenghis had fixed themselves, into the Corea, and the countries north of the Caspian. The khans of Khaptchak, or Kiptschak, were conquered, and the celebrated Grand Duke Nevski, the conqueror of Livonia, was vanquished, and compelled to escape to Poland (1237); Moscow and Vladimer were razed to the ground, and the whole territory resembled a vast desert. Batu and Gayuk (the grandsons of Ghenghis) pursued their conquests. The battle of Sehiedlow was fought, and Krakow was burned; Silesia and Moravia overrun and devastated; Hungary, after a brave resistance on the part of Bela, was wholly subdued, and Breslau was committed to the flames. The whole of Europe trembled at the approach of the barbarians, who

seemed just on the eve of accomplishing the designs of their great predecessor, Ghenghis. The German emperor and the pope summoned all Europe to combine against the barbarians; hence a large army assembled, under the command of the Silesian duke, who met the Mongols near Lignitz. The battle was lost, and the duke was found among the slain. This, the most sanguinary battle ever fought in Europe against the Orientals, is named the *Wahlstatt* (battle field), 1242. The Mongols who had been engaged in the battle now directed their steps towards the south. They were met by the Bohemians, on their way through Moravia, at *Olmütz*, and defeated with considerable loss. Batu escaped with the remnant of his horde to Hungary, and being joined by the other hordes, from which he had been separated, once more attacked the Austrian dominions. A numerous Christian army, under Wenzel of Bohemia, and the dukes of Austria and Carinthia, however, opposed and defeated them. The intelligence of the death of Octai, khan of China, whose son had ascended the throne, induced them to abandon their conquests, and to return to the East, laden with an immense amount of spoil. Poland, Hungary, and the western countries of Europe, were thus saved, but the grand duchy of Vladimir, embracing northern and eastern Russia, was tributary for upwards of two centuries. The Khan Hoolugoo, undertook the conquest of Baghdad (see § 43).

The native country of this people is found to be nearly the same as that occupied by them at the present day. They were ruled over by a great khan, resident at Peking, who was elected by the inferior khans. The most powerful were the khans of Khaptchak, on the Wolga, and the Jagatai, or Dschagatai, in Turkestan.

FOURTH PERIOD.

From the termination of the Crusades to the discovery of America,
1273—1492.

A. The West.

§ 45.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

8. Kings of different Houses, 1273—1347.

1. Rudolph of Hapsburg, 1273—1291.

Germany, from a mighty empire, giving laws to the other countries of the West, had at last sunk into contempt. Its crown, so far from being an object of ambition to the great feudal nobility of its own soil, could scarcely find a wearer, even among the princes of foreign lands. The internal wars which existed during the whole of the twenty years interregnum, which followed the death of Frederick II., had entirely weaned the princes of foreign lands from coveting the crown of the empire, while they on the other hand, had created a general feeling in the minds of the electoral princes, no less than in the people at large, in favour of a native prince. Formerly, at the election of emperor, the question was, on which of the great houses shall the royal dignity be conferred; but now, since the overthrow of the house of Hohenstaufen, the question at issue was, on whom shall the dignity rest; the person, and not the house, was the consideration: hence the dignity was now sought after by the electoral princes themselves. The emperor elected did not, however, assume that commanding position, with respect to the other princes, which former emperors had considered themselves entitled to, from their hereditary rank; for since the concessions made to them by Frederick II., which invested them with almost imperial dignities within their respective provinces, the royal dignity was deprived of a large amount of its revenues; the feudal lands no longer depended upon the emperor, and dignities had become hereditary: feudal rights and obligations towards the sovereign, therefore, had to a great extent ceased. The relative position of the emperor, with respect to the church, too, was also considerably altered. The church, formerly, sought the interest of the emperor, as its defender and protector; now the church had triumphed over the secular power, and wrested from it one of the chief means of its aggrandizement, which it retained for itself, in the disposing of preferments, and ecclesiastical dignities.

The next year after the death of Richard (of Cornwall), in 1273, the diet of election was assembled at Frankfort, for the purpose of choosing an emperor. On the recommendation of Werner, the archbishop of Maynz, Rudolph, the count of Hapsburg and Kyburg, was elected, by the votes of all the elective princes, excepting that of the Duke of Bavaria, and the powerful Duke of Bohemia, who refused to attend personally,

and whose representatives, not being allowed to take part in the election, remonstrated against the decision of the electors. On the unexpected news reaching Rudolph, he was engaged in besieging the town of Basel, the bishop of which had massacred some of the nobles of his family. Rudolph proceeded without delay to Aix-la-Chapelle, where he was crowned King of the Romans, 1273. Ottocar, the Bohemian duke, and Henry, the duke of Lower Bavaria, refusing to do homage for their fiefs held from the empire, were cited before the assembly; neglecting to appear, their estates were declared confiscated. Henry soon after submitted; but Ottocar still defied the emperor, summoned the vassals of the crown, and those of his own house, and invaded the Austrian dominions, which were soon reduced, while Carinthia, Carniola, and Styria, were subdued by the Count of the Tyrol, whose daughter had married Albert, the son of Rudolph. The stronghold of Ottocar now was the firmly fortified city of Vienna, on the one side of the Danube, while the river itself was conceived to be a defence for him on the opposite bank, where his army was assembled. Rudolph, however, threw a bridge of boats across the river, to the utter dismay of the Bohemian king, who now submitted, and was compelled to give up the Austrian duchy, with all its dependencies. His possessions of Bohemia and Moravia were confirmed to him, and, to ensure peace and amity, intermarriages took place between the sons and daughters of the emperor, and the Bohemian duke. The emperor, suspicious of his rival, remained in Austria, and was not long before he discovered the treasonable designs of Ottocar, who, after a short struggle, fell on the field of battle (Marchfield). Rudolph now possessed the opportunity of enriching his house, by the three duchies at his command, viz., Austria, Styria, and Carniola. Rudolph was too wise further to strengthen the princes of the empire, by dividing among them the vacant duchies; he therefore sought to aggrandize his own family, and to raise them to a rank in the empire equal to that of the other princes. Having obtained the consent of the diet, the emperor distributed the vacant duchies and lordships between his sons and his son-in-law, the Count Meinham, of Tyrol, who had Carinthia. The son of Ottocar, who had married Rudolph's daughter, had Bohemia, with the privilege of *pretaxation*, or rights of an electoral prince, which were now

removed from Bavaria. The remaining years of the reign of Rudolph were occupied in subduing the predatory plundering of the barons,—a species of brigandage which was as destructive to the rights of commerce, as injurious to individual interests. He executed a great number of the noble plunderers, and demolished hundreds of their castles or strongholds, in which they sheltered themselves. In 1291, this vigorous and active monarch breathed his last, after a reign of eighteen years.

Rudolph, the noble founder of the present house of Austria, was probably a descendant of the ancient dukes of Alemannia; his patrimonial estates were very limited, and his revenues scanty, yet he did not, like most of the nobility of his time, head a banditti, to rob and plunder the unprotected merchant or citizen. Rudolph's valour was displayed in contests with the barons, his equals, whom he made to contribute to his wealth and greatness; but chiefly in the wars against the Slaves and Hungarians, in which he hired himself and his little band of faithful followers to Ottocar, the Bohemian duke. He owed his elevation, however, chiefly to the accidental circumstance of furnishing a military escort to the Archbishop of Maynz, whom he conducted to and fro from that city to Rome, a passage then highly dangerous; the manners and conduct of Rudolph, so won upon the mind of the prelate, that he determined to advance his interests, and became his sincere friend. On the election, the archbishop procured the consent of his two spiritual colleagues of Cologne and Treves, and by promises of marriage with the daughters of Rudolph, the dukes of Saxony and Bavaria, and the Margrave of Brandenburg, were brought over; hence the election of Rudolph of Hapsburg was secured, and that of the great and powerful Ottocar defeated. Rudolph, however, had to make large concessions to the church; he resigned all feudal supremacy over the estates in Tuscany (Matilda's), the march of Ancona, the duchy of Spoleto, the kingdom of Naples, and the Roman duchy. He agreed never to interfere in ecclesiastical elections, and the appointment of bishops, and to allow the pope to settle the disputes of the church within the empire, if appealed to. These great concessions were a costly sacrifice of the interests of the empire for that of the individual, who sought to aggrandize his house, and to enrich his family. From the condition of a poor baron, he rose to be one of the greatest emperors since the days of Charlemagne, and at his death, left his family in a condition not inferior to the greatest princes of the empire. The nobility, who were not ignorant of Rudolph's designs, refused to elect his son as his successor; they thought the crown might even yet become hereditary, and this they were determined to oppose and to prevent, as they had done in the case of Ottocar, the Bohemian duke.

2. Adolph of Nassau (1292—1298). The Archbishop of Maynz having been entrusted with the votes of the electoral princes, to their great dismay, proclaimed a cousin of his own,

Adolph, who, by his concessions to the church, may be said to have purchased the dignity. In order to strengthen the interests of his house, he reclaimed the lordships of Idstein and Weilburg, and the estates attached to them; the vacant margraviate of Meissen, with the East Mark, and Thuringia, he purchased of the landgrave, Albrecht the Degenerate, but his sons (Frederick with the Bitten Cheek, and Diezman) refused to ratify the agreement of their father, and kept possession of the territories. Adolph, incensed, placed the two brothers under the ban of the empire, by which measure they were excluded from the right of succession to the Thuringian provinces, which were afterwards claimed by the empire. To obtain forcible possession, Adolph invaded Thuringia on two occasions; Meissen was overrun and subdued, and such were the atrocious cruelties committed by the emperor, that he became odious, even in the eyes of his followers. Albert of Austria, the son of Rudolph, and the expectant of the vacant throne, availed himself of the general disaffection, and as the emperor was now pressed for the fulfilment of the promises made on his election, and refused to fulfil them, the Primate of Maynz, his kinsman, joined the other electors in the interests of Albert, and summoned the emperor to appear before the diet: this he refused to do, and was condemned for contempt, and deposed; when Albert was elected. The rival emperors flew to arms; but on coming to an engagement, at the battle of the knights, at Gelheim, near Worms, the feeble and sordid Adolph was slain.

The Emperor Adolph was of a remarkably covetous disposition; he had engaged at his election to surrender the Rhine dues of Boppard to the archbishopric of Maynz, and always evaded fulfilling the compact. He also received a large sum of money from Edward I. of England, to defray the expenses of an aggressive war upon the French territories of Philip, but he neither invaded France, nor returned the money which he had received. It is said by some, that he owed the loss of his throne to the indulgence of avarice, and that Pope Boniface VIII. would not authorise a new election, until he had received a large sum of money, as a present, from Albert, the new candidate.

3. Albert I. of Austria, 1298—1308.

The former election of Albert, during the lifetime of Adolph, had been opposed by the Primate of Treves, and the Count Palatine; hence Albert, on the death of his rival, submitted to a re-election by the six electoral princes, which took place at Frankfort.

Albert, like his predecessor, made large concessions to the

church, chiefly to the dioceses of Maynz, Cologne, and Treves; but he proceeded much further, by granting such immunities and exemptions to the electoral and the great princes of the empire, that they were virtually independent princes, or sovereigns; they were neither bound to obey the citation of the emperor, and, in some cases, not even compelled to assist him in time of war with an army. Albert, however, never intended to fulfil them, but to exert all his energies in the aggrandizement of his house, and, if possible, to render the German crown hereditary in his family; he was, however, unsuccessful. The first attempt of Albert was on the county of Holland, formerly possessed by William, the rival sovereign of Frederick II., whose grandson being now dead, the county was claimed by the Count of Henegau, a relative on the female side; this claim Albert endeavoured to set aside, and placed the count under the ban of the empire. The expedition of Albert to the Netherlands, for the purpose of obtaining forcible possession of it, does not appear to have been successful.

The emperor next revived the claims of the empire on Thuringia and Meissen, but his attempts to wrest it out of the hands of Frederick and Diezman were fruitless. Having refused to make the surrender of the domains and privileges solemnly promised by him at his election, the electors felt insulted, and indignant, and Albert was cited to appear before the Count Palatine, while the pope commanded his presence at Rome, to answer the charge of treason. Albert neither regarded the secular nor the spiritual power, but resorted to arms. In a short time he defeated the three ecclesiastical princes, and the Palatine count. Soon after, Boniface (who had excommunicated Philip of France), recognised Albert as king, and sought an alliance with him, promising him the throne of France, on condition that he conquered it from Philip, the enemy of the church. Albert refused to interfere; and Boniface was soon after put to death by the hired assassins of Philip. The arms of Albert were now directed against Wenceslas, the duke of Bohemia, who died, 1305, and was succeeded by his son, Wenceslas V., who expired after a reign of only one year: the male line of the Slavonic princes in Bohemia was now extinct. The emperor accordingly bestowed the kingdom upon his son, Albert, as a royal fief. Albert soon after dying, Frederick, another son of the emperor, aspired to the dignity, and was partially acknowledged by the Bohe-

mians themselves. The partizans of the Duke of Carinthia, however, opposed his election, and, on recourse to arms, the Duke of Austria was defeated, and Henrich of Carinthia was proclaimed king. Albert, disappointed in his endeavours to gain possession of Misnia and Thuringia, sought to erect another principality out of his great possessions in Suabia, Alsace, and Switzerland; but the imperious conduct of the lieutenants, Gessler and Beringer, whom he had placed over the three forest towns of Schwyz, Uri, and Unterwalden, induced the citizens to resist the annexation of their cities to the contemplated principality: hence they formed themselves into a confederacy, under Werner Stauffacher, of Schwyz, Walter Fürst, of Ottinghausen in Uri, and Arnold Melchthal, of Unterwalden, and thirty other confederates, including the celebrated William Tell.* The governors were surprised and banished, while their castles were razed to the ground. The deputies then entered into a league for the maintenance of their liberties for ten years, reserving, however, to the empire its proper rights. Thus was laid the foundation of the Swiss confederacy, which, as it was confirmed by an oath, was termed the Eidgenossen. Gessler, one of the bailiffs or cantons of the emperor, was shot dead by an arrow from the bow of Tell, while Laudenberg was seized by strategy in his castle of Sarnen, and expelled the country. Albert prepared for war, but whether to attack the Bohemians, on behalf of his son, Frederick of Austria, or to punish the free mountaineers of the three rebel cantons, is not certain. Duke John of Kyburg (Parricida), whom Albert had refused to invest with the dignities of his house, conceived the latter to be the case, and, to prevent the emperor from carrying out his iniquitous design, he resolved to be revenged. Accordingly he, with four other conspirators, met the emperor near the castle of Hapsburg; they seized the reins of his horse, when his nephew exclaimed, "Will you now restore my inheritance," and immediately wounded him; two

* According to Kopp, there was no bailiff of the name of Gessler over any of the cities of the Kreustnacht, and the historical tale of William Tell he considered a fiction, alleging that the Danes and Icelanders have a story or myth respecting the shooting of an apple from off the head of a child. L. Hausser, however, conceives that the historical existence of Tell can be fully proved, but thinks the patriotic deed consisted in his being the first to refuse to perform the act of obeisance to the hat erected by the bailiff.

of the other conspirators joined in the murderous attack, and left the king weltering in his blood. The traitors fled, and with the exception of one (Wart), who was seized and broken on the wheel, died in obscurity and wretchedness.

4. Henry VII. of Luxembourg, 1308—1313.

To prevent the hereditary succession of the crown, the electors refused to choose the Duke Frederick of Austria. While, to frustrate the election of Charles de Valois, the brother of Philip of France, the pope prevailed upon the Archbishop of Maynz, and the other princes of the empire, not to delay the election, but to proceed at once in their choice of a successor. Under the influence of the primate, their votes were given in favour of the Count of Luxembourg, the brother of the Primate of Treves, Henry VIII., who signed a capitulation, by which the archbishopric of Maynz became an independent principality; and Henry bound himself to consult the will of the pope in every important transaction. An opportunity of extending the influence of his house, in which he was more successful than his predecessors, soon presented itself. The Bohemians, disgusted with Henrich, the duke of Carinthia, whom they had chosen as their prince to the exclusion of Frederick of Austria, resolved upon his deposition. The sister of Wenceslas v. (Elizabeth), was taken from the convent in which she resided, and affianced to the young Prince John, the son of the emperor, who now made the duchy a fief of his house. Henry unwisely resolved to restore the supremacy of the empire over Lombardy and Tuscany. He acted impartially between the Guelphs and the Ghibelines, and endeavoured to reconcile their differences; this, however, he found impracticable. The Guelphs were still the violent opponents of the German emperors; and on the departure of Henry from Lombardy, where he received the crown in the church of St. Ambrose (a new crown having been provided for the occasion, in the absence of the old one, which had been pledged), the Milanese and others began to prepare for war. Henry was glad to depart from Geneva, on board a Pisan fleet, with his soldiers. Robert of Naples opposed the citizens of Florence, who took up arms to resist him. The Pisans, on the contrary, assisted him, and furnished him with galleys and crossbow-men, who accompanied him to Rome, where he was crowned, 1312. The city being in the possession of the Neapolitans, none of the soldiers

of Henry were allowed to enter, and the gates were closed during the whole of the ceremony. After his coronation, his German army grew weary of the campaign, and, for the most part, retired homeward across the Alps. Henry, however, nothing daunted, with an Italian army proceeded to Florence, but after a while retired without obtaining any advantage. He next appeared before Lucca, but retired towards Rome after having received reinforcements from his brother, the Primate of Treves, having heard that the Neapolitans were going to join the Florentines, and then to attack him. On his arrival at Buon-Convento, he was, after having received the communion, suddenly seized with sickness, and expired, probably the victim of poison mingled in the consecrated cup.

On the demise of Henry VII. of the house of Luxembourg, there occurred a clashing of rival interests. The Austrian house sought the elevation of Frederick, the son of Albert I.; and Duke John of Bohemia, son of the late emperor, although he could not oppose the secular electoral princes, in seeking his own elevation, from their jealousy of an hereditary succession, yet he, with the Primate of Maynz, and other princes, resolved to support a prince hostile to the house of Austria, and favourable to that of Luxembourg. Hence, on the diet assembling at Frankfort, two princes were elected: the Duke of Bavaria, Louis VII. (1313—1347), a supporter of the Luxembourg faction; and the Duke Frederick of Austria (1313—1330). Both were crowned kings of the Romans; the former at Aix-la-Chapelle, by the Archbishop of Mentz; the latter at Bonn, by the Primate of Cologne. A civil war was the result. The Swiss, not having forgotten the insolence of the First Albert's lieutenants, and his own imperious rule over them, resolved to oppose the Austrian interests. This drew down upon them the anger of Frederick, who hastened to be revenged. He was, however, signally defeated at Montgarten (1315), as was also his brother, the warlike Leopold of Austria. He next advanced against his rival, Louis, whom he met between Muhldorf and Ettingen, in the Bavarian duchy. He was defeated, and, with Henry of Austria, taken prisoner by the great commander Schweppermann, who led the army of Ludovic. Frederick was confined in the castle of Fraunitz, where he was kindly treated. Louis having assisted the Ghibelines of Lombardy, which compelled the Guelphs to raise the siege of Milan, the pope excommuni-

cated and deposed him; and the ecclesiastical electors endeavoured to set Charles of Valois upon the throne. This event, and the disaffection of John of Bohemia, who transferred his support to the Austrian house, led Louis at once to seek a reconciliation. Frederick was liberated on renouncing his claim to the empire. The princes and the pope opposing this arrangement, Frederick again surrendered himself, an act which Louis rewarded by engaging with Frederick to rule conjointly. This agreement was also objected to, when Louis suggested that he should make Italy the seat of his government, while Frederick should remain in Germany. Meanwhile the support of the Austrian house, Leopold, died, and not very long after, the death of Frederick took place, 1330. Thus Louis was left in full possession of the empire. The vindictive pope, however, resolved, if possible, to dispossess him, and placed it under an interdict. Louis, on the other hand, granted immense privileges to the house of Austria, conferring upon it also the duchy of Carinthia, and the county of the Tyrol. Louis next marched into Lombardy, in open defiance of the pope, and received the Langobardian crown. Proceeding thence to Rome, where he was crowned King of the Romans, he gave directions for the choice of an anti-pope (Nicholas v.). An imperial diet at Frankfort (1338) had declared that the pope held no temporal power within the empire, and that the sovereign chosen by the electoral princes, became the legitimate sovereign without the confirmation of the pope; and that all persons who supported the contrary opinion should be guilty of high treason. The emperor was authorised to remove the interdict which had been laid upon the empire by the pope. This resolution had been preceded by a league ratified at Rense, termed "*The General Union of the Electors*," which added, that on the refusal of the pope to crown, the ceremony might be performed by any of the bishops of the empire. The pontiff, Clement vi., however, disregarded these proceedings, and renewed the sentence which deposed the emperor, and exhorted the electors to proceed to a new election. Louis, who in some degree feared the curse of the church, became a humble suppliant for absolution, but it was refused; and the pope's ally, the Duke of Bohemia, now openly arrayed himself against him. This prince had been his silent enemy from the day that Louis presented the duchy of Carinthia and the county of the Tyrol to the mem-

bers of the Austrian house. Under the auspices of the pope and the French king, the Duke of Bohemia was raised to the throne, 1346; and Louis expired in the midst of the troublous scenes which followed (1347).

During his reign, Louis enriched his house by many valuable possessions. 1st. On the extinction of the Ascanian house, he presented the mark of Brandenburg, as a fief, to his son Louis, to the exclusion of the collateral branches of Saxony and Anhalt. It was surrendered in 1373. 2nd. He added the Tyrol to his possessions by divorcing the Countess Margaret Maultash of Tyrol, from her husband (John of Bohemia), and uniting her in marriage with his son Louis, the margrave of Brandenburg, granting him a dispensation, because of the too close relationship of the parties. He also, 3rd, confiscated the counties of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Hennegau, as vacant or lapsed fiefs of the empire.

The French interest, which was dominant in the empire at this period, was chiefly owing to the fact that the popes, who, with the cardinals, were French, resided at Avignon, and were the tools of the French monarch: hence the hostility of the papal church to the progress of constitutional freedom in Germany, and the treacherous conduct displayed in their Italian politics. At length the pontiffs of Avignon, by their gross immoralities, dark intrigues, and boundless ambition, disgusted even the most zealous and faithful adherents of the papal church. Hence, to be further removed from French domination, Clement VI. exerted himself to fix the seat of the popedom again at Rome, and so terminate the "*Captivity*." Avignon, and the surrounding country, was, however, first purchased, and secured to the holy see as a part of its patrimony.

b) Kings of the House of Bohemia—Luxembourg.

1. Charles IV., 1347—1378.

Charles of Bohemia had been elected king of the Romans twelve months before the death of Louis, and as he had obtained the dignity chiefly through the instrumentality of the church, he had been called upon at his election to sign a capitulation, alike disgraceful to himself and those electors by whom he was supported. Hence many of the princes now hesitated to confirm his election, and sought a rival in Gonther, the count of Schwartzenburg, who, however, was soon removed from the contest by death,—according to some, by poison, at the instigation of Charles, who now was firmly seated on the throne.

The efforts of Charles were now directed to the internal administration, in which he effected some remarkable and important changes. To remedy the disputes attendant upon the undetermined and ill-defined form of election to the imperial dignity which had hitherto been

adopted by the diets, he issued, at the diets of Nuremberg and Metz, held 1356, an imperial edict, termed the Golden Bull (from the golden seal appended to it). By this famous document—1st, the *number of the electors* was fixed, agreeably to ancient custom, at *seven*. Three of these were to be ecclesiastical princes—the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, and four secular princes—the duke of Saxony (who was, with the count palatine, to rule the empire during the absence of the monarch, or between the death of one and the election of another to the throne), the king or duke of Bohemia, the margrave of Brandenburg, and the count palatine (of the Rhine). 2nd. The right was to be exercised by those princes who held the high offices of the state, with which it was to remain inseparable. Thence, 3rdly, these dignities were made hereditary in certain families; the duke of Bohemia was to remain *grand cup bearer*, the palatine count of the Rhine *grand seneschal*, the duke of Saxony *grand marshall*, and the margrave of Brandenburg *grand chamberlain*. These again, 4thly, had their *hereditary deputies*, namely; count of Limburg, the lord of Fürstemburg, the baron of Pappenheim, and the count of Falkenstein. 5th. One month after the death of any sovereign, the primate of Maynz was to summon the electors to meet at Frankfort, within three months, either personally, or by an accredited representative. The election was to be determined by the number of votes, and the consecration to take place at Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), by the archbishop of Cologne. 6th. The division of the glebe to which the electoral title was affixed, could neither be partitioned or alienated. The order of succession called *agnate*, was introduced with respect to these principalities: hence they, with the right of voting, passed from the father to the eldest son, or in default of male issue, to the nearest heir male of the family. 7th. The electoral princes ranked above all other princes of the empire, and crimes committed against them constituted high treason. 8th. They exercised in their respective principalities unlimited power, and neither in civil or ecclesiastical matters was there any appeal from their decisions. 9th. The *first diet* of the sovereign was always to be held at *Nuremberg*.

The energies of Charles were restricted to the aggrandizement of his hereditary kingdom, *Bohemia*: of the interests of the empire he was totally regardless. By a series of iniquitous treaties, or family compacts, he contrived to bring Brandenburg, Silesia, Lusatia, and a portion of the Upper Palatinate, into the possession of his family. In furtherance of his designs, he laid the foundation of the *first German university*, that of *Prague* (1348), which soon numbered from 7,000 to 8,000 students. He cultivated the acquaintance of men of learning and genius, whom he invited to his kingdom. Legislation was improved, and the laws better administered; commerce was extended, and the industry and prosperity of Bohemia promoted to the utmost extent of his power. In

1377, Charles procured the election of his son Wenceslas, as king of the Romans, which was the height of his ambition. It was, however, dearly bought; 100,000 *florins* are said to have been paid for *each vote*, raised from the sale of the royal domains and revenues of the crown, and the granting of more extensive privileges to the imperial cities. Charles twice passed over into Italy; on the first occasion to be crowned, and on the second to maintain the supremacy of the empire. He also, through the interest of the Archbishop of Maynz, received the crown of Arles, but totally neglected the interests of his subjects, who were made the victims of his rapacity. Charles was succeeded by *Wenzel*, or Wenceslas, his eldest son.

During the reign of Charles IV., the towns and cities rose into considerable importance, and obtained greater privileges and immunities than before. Large sums of money were indeed paid as the price of them, but then the grants or advantages received were fully equivalent in value to the contribution. These free or imperial cities were exempted from all control from without; they were self-governed, and were perfectly free to form alliances, declare war, and make peace; while the right of settling their own amount of taxation was vested in them. From the imperial towns, which by their guilds and corporations secured that protection which was necessary for the unrestricted progress of their commerce, sprung those confederacies and leagues for common protection which, during this period, were so augmented, and which had their model in that of Lombardy.

a) *Confederacies of Towns*.—At the close of Charles's reign, the number had increased to *five*. 1. The *German Hansa*, now at the zenith of its greatness (comp. § 58). 2. The confederacy of the seven Frisian maritime districts, for the defence of their liberties against the attacks of the neighbouring princes. 3. The *Rhenish confederacy* (of towns on the Rhine) against the oppressions arising out of the Rhine dues (1247), to which not only the towns on the Rhine, from Basel to Cologne, belonged, but also several important ones in other parts of the empire, as Nuremburg, Ratisbon, &c. 4. The *Swiss confederacy*, which was augmented by the addition of the towns of Lucerne, Zurich, Zug, Berne, and the canton of Glarus. 5. The *Sua-bian confederacy*, raised against the rapacity of Charles

iv., who attempted to pawn or to sell their revenues, and Count Eberhard of Wirtemberg, who oppressed them.

b) The Confederacies of the Nobility, formed to protect themselves from the attacks of the cities of the league, the inhabitants of which, after a while, became aggressors, and sallied forth from their walled towns, to demolish indiscriminately the castles and strongholds of the nobility, and to overrun their domains; while they also encouraged the slaves to forsake their feudal masters, and take shelter in their towns. These leagues had their rise in Suabia and the Rhenish provinces, and soon extended to Saxony and Bavaria. Among them were the league of the Order of St. George (Suabia), and those of the Martin, the Lion, and the Falcon, &c. The nobles who formed those leagues against the towns and cities, endeavoured to maintain their feudal supremacy, and even to subdue the imperial cities: hence the empire was never at peace; and subsequently arose another confederation, which consisted alike of princes and cities.

2. Wenzel, or Wenceslas, 1378—1400 (1410).

Wenceslas, by the will of his father, had Bohemia and Silesia, with the Upper Palatinate; and on the death of his uncle Wenzel, who died childless, he received Luxembourg. His brother Sigismund had the mark of Brandenburg assigned to him, to prevent the holding of two votes in the election by one prince. The third brother, John, became duke of Lusatia, and his two sons, Jodacus (John) and Procopius, had Moravia. The first ten years of the reign of Wenceslas were spent in endeavours to restore the peace of the empire and the church. For this purpose he made repeated attempts to unite the whole of the confederacies into one, that a general peace might follow throughout the empire; and at a diet held in the imperial city of Nuremberg (1385), he issued an edict commanding a peace of twelve years. Twelve months, however, had scarcely elapsed, when the tranquillity of the empire was broken by the Austrian duke Leopold. He had purchased of the emperor, for 40,000 golden florins, the baillages of Feldkirch and Fluding, with Augsburg, a proceeding which, as it brought the possessions of the Austrian house nearer to their frontiers, naturally created suspicions in the minds of the Swiss. Leopold having placed bailiffs in the cities, who severely oppressed them by their haughty demeanor and unjust exactions, an insurrection was the consequence. The

Swiss marched to Rothenburg, and destroyed several of the strongholds of the Austrians, and also admitted into its community the Austrian districts of Entlibuch, Sempach, and Richensee. At length, Leopold himself arrived in Switzerland, with 4,000 picked men, and resolved to crush the liberties of the rising cities. On approaching Sempach, the battle began, but the Swiss could not, at first, make any impression upon the close armed ranks of the Austrians. The heroism and self-devotion of Arnold of Winkelried, an Unterwalden knight, however, opened a way for his countrymen, who rushed into the gap, and created a general panic in the Austrian army, which was totally routed. Leopold, and more than six hundred titled nobles, fell in the battle, besides upwards of 1,500 men at arms. The loss of the Swiss was only 200 men (1386). The sons of Leopold continued the war, but they were defeated at Naefels, when the liberties of the Helvetic confederacy were secured (1388). Meanwhile, many of the inferior nobles joined the cities and towns, to preserve their domains from being despoiled; while, on the other hand, the nobility formed counter leagues, and strengthened those which were already established. In 1388, the war between the nobles and cities again broke out. The Duke of Bohemia had wantonly attacked the imperial city of Salzburg, and seized the archbishop. South-western Germany was ravaged by the Suabian and Rhenish confederacies, who, however, proved too weak to withstand the powerful Count Eberhard of Wirtemberg, who defeated them at Doffingen, and at Worms, with great slaughter. Wenzel now called a diet at Egerand, and induced the princes and towns to consent to a truce for six years, which he ratified. An imperial edict was also issued, which declared the recently-formed confederation dissolved. Four deputies from the nobles, and four from the cities, were now appointed to decide any disputes which might arise between them, whose decision was to be final. The settlement of these measures again relieved Wenceslas from the cares of the state, and he retired to his kingdom of Bohemia, again to resume his accustomed habits of cruelty and debauchery. At length he became so odious to the Bohemians, that they rose against him, and confined him in a prison at Prague, from which he, however, escaped. On being again taken, through the influence of his youngest brother, John, he was once more restored to liberty.

That Wenzel cared little about the interests of the empire, was apparent from his conduct. He, however, did not neglect to withdraw large sums of money from its treasury, for the gratification of his passions; and when these did not suffice, he pawned or sold the revenues of the imperial cities and towns, while he also received large sums from the sale of titles, and portions of the royal domains. The grievances of the nobility were therefore great. Wenceslas cared as little for his Italian as for his German subjects, and disgusted them also by his rapacious conduct. He, 1st, gave umbrage to the Germans no less than to the Lombardians, by the sale of the duchy of Milan, to Gian Galeazzo, of the house of the Visconti, for 100,000 florins. 2. He entered into an agreement with the French monarch, to effect the downfall of the Roman pontiff, Boniface IX., the rival of the Avignon pontiff, Benedict XIII. This excited against Wenceslas the revenge of the Archbishop of Mentz, who had obtained his dignity through Benedict; and he, with the two other ecclesiastical prelates, and the Count Palatine, assembled a diet of the princes at Oberlahnstein, who cited the emperor to appear before them, to explain the charges brought against him: on his neglecting so to do, the throne was declared vacant (1400).

Rupert, or Robert, 1400—1410.

On the deposition of Wenceslas, there were difficulties as to the appointment of a successor, not easy of removal. Wenceslas, the duke of Bohemia, and Sigismund, margrave of Brandenburg, the sons of the deposed emperor, jealous of each other, would not sanction their own degradation by the election of a prince not of their own house. The Duke of Saxony, perceiving that the electors were about to choose a prince obnoxious to him, refused to take any part in the proceedings. To prevent his manifesting active opposition by an appeal to arms, he was arrested. The choice of the electors fell on the feeble Count Palatine, Robert: thus, at this period, there were two popes and two German emperors. Robert's administration, notwithstanding his many good qualities, was unfortunate. He was neither able to secure the tranquillity of Germany, nor to restore peace in Lombardy, now virtually cut off from the empire by the iniquitous and unjust sale of the duchy of Milan to the Viscontis. Robert, who had failed in an expedition against Bohemia, undertaken with the view of compelling Wenceslas to renounce his claims upon the empire,

passed the Alps, that he might receive the crown at Rome, and so render his position more secure. He also demanded of the Duke of Milan the renunciation of the title and the domains, and, with an army; endeavoured to compel him; but on his arrival, he found the cavalry of Milan more than a match for the heavy-armed German troops, and was forced to a hasty and disgraceful retreat, without being able to proceed to Rome (1401). In endeavouring to restore the prerogatives of the crown in Germany, he was opposed by the greater majority of the princes, who leagued against his encroachments, and were, in fact, the real sovereigns of the state. Robert was not more successful against the leagued cities and towns, which refused the subsidies required of them, and bid the armies of the emperor open defiance. At length the leagued princes, dissatisfied with Robert's government, met at Marbach, and openly declared for the Bohemian king, Wenceslas; but his sudden and unexpected death averted the catastrophe of a civil war.

On the demise of Robert, the electors were divided into three parties; one seemed to favour the cause of Wenceslas (who was at their head), alleging that there was a king already elected; and the two other parties were for the legal deposition of Wenceslas, but disagreed as to whom they should elect, some being in favour of his brother, Sigismund, margrave of Brandenburg and king of Hungary, and others choosing rather to elect his cousin-german, Jobst (Jodocus), margrave of Moravia. Thus there were for a time, three kings of the Romans. The death of the margrave, before his coronation, however, saved the empire from the horrors of civil war, and the party of Sigismund, being strengthened by the adherents of the margrave, the former was duly elected, and unanimously acknowledged King of the Romans, Wenceslas, himself, also abdicating in favour of his brother.

Sigismund, 1410—1437.

The reign of Sigismund was marked by the beginning of several important affairs. 1. The wars between the heathen Poles and the knights of the German order, against the Venetians. 2. The Hungarian war, on the death of Wenceslas, against the emperor, whom that people refused to acknowledge. 3. The Lombardian struggle for independence, under their duke, Visconti, and the Venetians, which occupied Sigismund until his coronation at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1414, and

terminated unsuccessfully. After his coronation, he proceeded to hold the council of Constance, called by him, and which was a sort of European congress, having for its object, 1st, The entire suppression of the Papal schism (the existence of three rival popes), and 2nd, The extirpation of heresy (the Hussites of Bohemia, Wycliffites).

a) *The entire suppression of the Papal schism.* For upwards of seventy years the popes had resided in the city of Avignon, on the Rhone, and for the last forty years the cardinals, both of France and Italy, had each elected a pope. This schism, the council of Pisa (1409), was summoned to suppress. Gregory XII. and Benedict XIII. were deposed, and Alexander I. elected in their stead, as the legitimate head of the papal church. After his death, John XXIII. was appointed as his successor, but as the two formerly deposed popes refused to resign, the evil was increased. There were now three rival popes, neither of whom, profiting by the existence of the schism, was anxious to give way. In the following year (1410), Sigismund convoked a general council, to be held at Constance, which the popes strenuously endeavoured to avert, but in vain. The council, in order to counteract the preponderance of the numerous Italian prelates, divided itself into four sections, according to the nations of which it was composed, namely, the Italian, French, German, and English, to which was afterwards added a fifth vote, that of the Spaniards; hence, each nation deliberated separately, and gave their votes in common, so that the general decision was taken, agreeably to the votes of the different nations, and not individually. This new system of voting sealed the fate of the Roman pope, John XXIII., who was at once deposed. The two others being compelled to abdicate, Martin V. was elected as sole pope in their room, but as the Roman states were not yet subjected to the papal see, the residence of Martin was fixed at Florence.

b) *The extirpation of heresy.* The writings of Wycliffe (the Oxford theologian), were directed against the monks and their establishments (Monachism), the supremacy of the pope, and transubstantiation, with other doctrines, levelled against the corrupt dogmas of the Roman Catholic church. These writings had been carried into Bohemia, by Jerome of Prague (Hierosnymus Faulfisch), and having been translated, were distributed, and created a great impression on the minds of several professors in the university of that city,

among whom was the celebrated John Huss, confessor to the Queen of Bohemia. At this period, the Bohemian church was divided into two classes of theologians, the realists and the nominalists, which sects pervaded the whole of Germany, and whose principal point of contention was the existence, or non-existence of abstract, or universal ideas. Besides this abstruse philosophical difference, the realists, who were Bohemians, had also a national antipathy to the German nominalists, who far out-numbered them, and possessed the dignities and revenues of the church. John Huss identified himself with his countrymen, and in spite of all the prohibitions of the Archbishop of Prague, who pronounced his sermons and discourses as pernicious and heretical, continued to inveigh against the errors of the papal church, especially against indulgences, purgatory, and prayers for the dead, devised only to enrich the dignitaries of the church. In 1414, Huss was cited to appear before the council, now assembled at Constance; and to secure himself against the malice of his enemies, procured a safe conduct from the Emperor Sigismund. On his arrival at Constance, the cardinals imprisoned him, nor was he released, even on the application of Sigismund, who complained of this violation of the imperial passport. On the arrival of the emperor to preside at the council, the hopes of Huss, who expected to have been liberated, were blighted; the emperor refused to interfere, and abandoned him to the will of the council. On the 5th January, 1415, Huss appeared before the council, but he had been condemned before he could be heard. Every art was tried in order to procure his recantation, but in vain; he was delivered over to the secular arm of the Elector Palatine, and condemned to be burned, without delay. He sung psalms amidst the flames, the smoke from which suffocated him, before the fire reached his body. The disturbances created in Bohemia by the death of Huss, did not deter the council from proceeding against his disciple, Jerome, who on the departure of the former from Prague, engaged to follow him to Constance, where he arrived (1415) shortly before he suffered martyrdom. A few days after the murder of Huss, Jerome was had before the council, and, previous to his second examination, was induced to retract his sentiments; he was, however, unjustly detained in a loathsome prison. A few months after his recantation, he demanded a public audience of the council, when, with

masterly eloquence, he denounced the act which had in his weakness been wrung from him, and declared his willingness to die in the defence of the doctrines of Wycliffe and Huss, the latter of whom he now regarded as a martyr and a saint. On being brought to the stake, he was engaged, like Huss, in the chaunting of psalms and hymns, until the fire terminated his sufferings.

c) Reformation of the Church (in the head, and in the body). From the middle of the thirteenth century, the reform of the church had been loudly demanded by the laity; and at the close of the fourteenth, and the commencement of the fifteenth centuries, many of the cardinals, with a large number of ecclesiastical dignitaries, openly proclaimed that the reformation of the church was necessary for its salvation. The council of Constance, not being satisfied with the measures of reform suggested by the Pope Martin v., separated, without effecting the desired changes. The pope, in order to meet the more pressing calls upon him, from the five nations, for reform, dealt with each separately, (with the exception of Italy), and granted concordats, which were to remain in force for five years; these concessions, however, were ineffectual, and did not obtain the general sanction of the church. On the appeal of the five nations to Sigismund, to compel the pope to hasten the work of reformation, the emperor severely replied, "I urged you, before the election took place, to procure a reformation: I have no power now."

At this council, the solemn enfeoffment of the Burgrave Frederick vi. of Nuremburg, of the house of Hohenzollern, took place (1417), who had purchased of Sigismund the margraviate of Brandenburg, for 400,000 ducats, or Hungarian florins (1415).

The Hussite War, 1419—1436.

Nicholas Hussinatz, the proprietor of the domains in which the martyr, Huss, had been born, resolved to avenge the fate of his vassal, and was appointed to be the leader of the Hussites. Accompanied by his followers, he demanded of Wenceslas, the Bohemian king, permission to seize some of the churches out of the hands of the Romanists, in which to celebrate Divine service according to the reformed church. The emperor refused; and they assembled upon a mountain, where they built a town and fortress, to which they gave the name of Tabor: hence they were called Taborites. These, the

most upright of the followers of Huss, elected as their military commander a valiant knight, John Zisca, and soon after, in consequence of a gross insult, they entered the council hall of Prague, and threw thirteen of the chief magistrates out of the windows upon the spears of the troops, and kept possession of the city, the fortress alone holding out against them. These acts of the Hussites so enraged the emperor that he soon after died of an apoplectic fit. Sigismund, who succeeded to the crowns of Germany and Bohemia, carried on the war against the Hussites, especially in Silesia, where it was most sanguinary; and at last the emperor, with the flower of his nobility, and a vast army (160,000), appeared before Prague, resolving to extirpate them, but 12,000 of his troops having fallen in one engagement, a truce was negotiated. The demands of the Hussites were reluctantly complied with, and Sigismund was crowned in the fortress of the city, which he soon after left, with his army, to resist the aggressions of the Turks. The suspension of arms, on account of the treaty, was short. The Hussites, however, were generally victorious, and the cruelties and excesses committed on both sides were incredible. Papal legates and German armies were alike vanquished. The battle of Deutschbrod proved more sanguinary than the assault before Prague. At last, worn out and mortified by his repeated failures, Sigismund resigned the Bohemian territory to Zisca, on condition of his holding it as a vassal. Zisca, now upwards of seventy years old, blind with both eyes, having lost them in battle, lived just long enough to receive the proposals from the emperor, when he died, 1424.

On the death of Zisca, which was a source of grief to the whole body of the Hussites, there arose a party who, counting Zisca as their parental leader, formed the sect of the *Orphans*, and did not select another military leader. The majority, however, termed from Calix (a cup), *Calixtenes*, chose as their chief, Procopius Raso, or the Great, who eventually included within his sphere of government the *Orphans* also. The wars of the Hussites began to assume an aggressive form. They made incursions into Hungary, Austria, Bavaria, and Saxony; even Vienna was threatened with a siege. The emperor, and his ablest generals, were always beaten, although superior in numbers; and all attempts at negotiation failed. Their decisive victory over the Cardinal Julia, and 100,000 German troops, however, compelled the Romanists to be more yielding.

The council of Basel, by its deputies, who met at Prague, was compelled to yield to their permission to receive the cup, under certain restrictions, and to celebrate Divine worship in the language of the people (1433). These concessions, however, were made only to serve the interests of the papal church, which now, by bribes and promises, fostered the divisions which had sprung up among the reformers, and which ultimately led to their ruin. Prague was recovered, and the brave Procopius fell in the action. The Calixtenes, who had now joined the Romanists, with their armies pursued the Taborites, and again defeated them at Lisan. The emperor now once more renewed his negotiations, and the papal legates sanctioned the unrestricted use of the cup: thus peace was for a while again restored. Sigismund, however, with his usual duplicity, performed none of his promises, but filled the churches with Romanists, and banished the Hussites from his court. He died on the eve of another outbreak (1437), without male issue.

The followers of Huss were first of all split into two sects: the *Calixtenes*, who insisted upon the restitution of the cup to the laity, or communion in both kinds, the wine, as well as the wafer or bread; and the *Taborites*, or *Horebites*, the least wealthy and dignified of the reformers, who demanded the abolition of all popish errors and ceremonies, and very nearly resembled the Waldenses. The Calixtenes, who only differed from the Romanists on the subject of communion in both kinds, were subsequently induced to form a Catholic league, and to join the Romanists against the Taborites and the Orphans, who combined for their mutual defence. In 1453, a large body of the Hussites, under Michael Bradazius, formed the society of "The United Brethren." Idolatrous rites were forbidden, as well as abstinence from carnal or warlike weapons for the defence of religion. The *Adamites* were a body of fanatics, who were commanded to appear always in a state of nudity; their disgusting and savage conduct at length led to their utter extermination by the Hussite leader, Zisca.

c) Kings of the house of Austria, since 1439.

1. Albert II. of Austria (1437—1439), was the son-in-law of Sigismund, and already king of Hungary and Bohemia. He was unanimously elected emperor by the princes, at Frankfort, and does not appear to have entered into any compact with the electoral princes, as the price of the dignity. He expelled the Polish king, Casimer, from Bohemia, and caused himself to be recognised as king, introducing many sound regulations for the peace and safety of that distracted

country. He died, after a short reign of two years, while defending his Hungarian frontiers from the attacks of the Turks, under Amurath, who had entered Transylvania.

2. Frederick III. (1440—1493), duke of Styria, and cousin of Albert II., was the last of the German emperors crowned at Rome. His reign was long (fifty-three years), but troublesome. Soon after the death of Albert II., his wife, the queen, gave birth to a son, Ladislas the Posthumous, who was by inheritance duke of Austria, and king of Hungary and Bohemia: Frederick II., as the next in succession, was his legitimate guardian. Uladislas, the king of Poland, being invited by the Hungarians to accept the crown, a civil war broke out, and the empress was compelled to fly with her son into Austria. Frederick armed in defence of his nephew, but was compelled to sign a truce, by which the crown of Hungary was lost to Poland. In Bohemia, Frederick was also unsuccessful; the Romanists and Calixtenes agreed to acknowledge Ladislas, on condition that the internal government should be vested in the hands of native regents. The Romanists and Hussites chose each their chief, and both endeavoured to obtain the ascendancy; Podeibrad, the Hussite regent, however, drove Count Meinhard from the seat of power, and exercised the supreme authority alone. In 1444, Uladislas, the Pole, fell in the battle of Varna, against the Turks, and the throne of Hungary was again vacant. The Hungarians now demanded, as their legitimate sovereign, the youthful prince, Ladislas, in which they were also joined by the Bohemians, and seconded by the Austrians. Frederick, however, would not yield up the prince, and the Hungarians, under their celebrated regent, John Hunniades, with their confederates, besieged the emperor, in Neustadt. Frederick was compelled to yield, and Ladislas was conveyed in triumph to Hungary, where he confirmed Hunniades in his regency, and, on his return through Bohemia, confirmed Podeibrad, also, in the regency of that kingdom. Hunniades expired, soon after his splendid victory over the Turks before Belgrade, and Ladislas himself, hated by his subjects for his bigotry and cruel conduct, died prematurely, in Prague, to which place he had escaped, to avoid the effects of their revenge, 1458. Frederick was now undisputed heir to the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, but could obtain neither. The former was placed on the head of Podeibrad, the regent (1459), the latter was conferred upon Matthias Corvinus

(1460), by whom it was subsequently purchased for 60,000 ducats. Austria was nearly wrested from him by his brother, Albert, but through the interposition of Podebrad, he secured the upper territories, and an annual tribute from Albert, of 4,000 ducats. In 1490, twenty-seven years after the death of Albert, it was annexed to the crown of Hungary. Frederick, by his neglect of the imperial revenues, and of the frontier provinces, and his unqualified submission to the court of Rome, failed to procure the attachment of the German princes, who considered him incapable of defending either the interests of the empire, or his own hereditary states. Even when the Turks, after the Dissolution of the Byzantine Empire, by the Conquest of Constantinople, 1453, assumed a position dangerous to the empire, Frederick contented himself with the calling of diets, which he neglected to meet.

In 1442, Zurich, which had detached itself from the Swiss confederacy (the Eidgenossen), in consequence of disputes respecting the domains of Count Toggenburg, formed an alliance with Frederick, who, with his army, marched to Zurich, thinking that he might be able to recover the lost possessions of the Hapsburg house. The Zurichers and Frederick were vanquished, when the latter engaged the (Filiu Belial) Armagnacs against the Swiss, to the amount of 30,000 men; these were met at Brattelen by a small body of Swiss soldiers, consisting of not more than 1,200 men, 1,190 of whom were left dead on the field of battle, ten only remaining, while thousands of men and horses belonging to the Armagnacs also strewed the field. In 1446, a peace was concluded, and Zurich was compelled to break off its connection with Austria, and to join the confederacy. In 1460, the Archduke (since 1453) Sigismund of Austria, cousin of Frederick, having offended the pope, the latter called upon the Swiss to seize his domains, a call which they were not slow in obeying. Thus, the Hapsburg possessions in Helvetia were wholly lost to the house of Austria, until the end of the eighteenth century. In Italy, Frederick's authority, as in Germany, was merely nominal, for on the seizure of the Milan Duchy by the cruel and crafty Francesco Sforza, on the extinction of the house of Visconti (1477), he merely contented himself with withholding the enfeoffment, which Sforza did not care to purchase; he even avoided an entrance into the duchy to receive the crown of Lombardy: hence, he went through the ceremony of a double coronation in Rome (1452). In 1466, after a long and sanguinary contest, in which Frederick took no part, the territories of Culm, Michelau, and Dantzic, were obtained by Poland from the Teutonic knights (see § 56).

Frederick, notwithstanding his unfortunate efforts with respect to the empire, was more successful in the aggrandizement of his house.

Towards the end of the fourteenth century (1384), the duchy of Burgundy (Bourgogne), and the free country of Burgundy (Franche Comte), had become independent of the kingdom of Burgundy, or Arles, and united to the empire, the supremacy of which was acknowledged. By the middle of the fifteenth century, the possessions of the house of Burgundy had received vast accessions, either by intermarriages, purchase, or inheritance. By the marriage of Philip to the heiress of the Count of Flanders, nearly all the most flourishing provinces of the Netherlands were brought into the Burgundian family.

The last duke of Burgundy, Charles the Bold (1467—1477). In 1473, the duke, after considerable manœuvring with the French monarch, whose supremacy he was tired of, hoped that by extending his duchy on the side of Germany, he might be able to induce the Emperor Frederick to acknowledge him as an independent sovereign, and thus place him in a condition to renounce his subjection to Louis, who took every opportunity to thwart and encroach upon his too powerful vassal. To obtain his object, Charles offered the hand of his daughter and heiress, Mary, who, if married to Maximilian, the son of Frederick, would convey over to the house of Austria the extensive territories of Burgundy. An interview was appointed between them at Treves, but Charles, by his ostentatious demands, defeated his own purpose. He required the coronation to be performed prior to the marriage of his daughter; this the emperor refused until after the nuptials had been celebrated, which not being agreed to, he abruptly departed, under the pretext of settling the dispute between Robert, archbishop of Cologne, and the chapter which had elected him. Charles warmly espoused the cause of the primate, while the emperor declared for the people, who had applied to him for succour. Charles was compelled, after his failure before the little town of Neuss (besieged for eleven months), to sue for peace, in order to chastise the Lorrainers and Swiss. At the head of 40,000 men, he subdued Lorraine, but proved no match for the mountaineers of Helvetia (Switzerland). Charles resolved, for the mere sake of glory, like the Carthaginian general, to surmount the Alps. The Swiss met him on the plains at Granson, and at Morat, near the Lake, and both times defeated him with great slaughter; at Granson, the Swiss fell in with the abandoned

camp of the enemy, containing valuables which far outshone the ancient camp of Xerxes, including two fine diamonds, one of which at the present day adorns the tiara of the pope, the other the Austrian crown. On the return of Charles from Granson, his jester observed, "Ha! my Lord, are we not finely Hannibalised?" After a third battle, at Nancy, lost through treachery and intrigue, the duke was found, naked and dead, half immersed in a frozen pool, to the great joy of his enemy, the French monarch, Louis XI., who now sought the hand of the heiress of Burgundy for his son, the dauphin, only eight years of age. Louis seized Burgundy and Artois by force (as lapsed fiefs); Boulogne, Arras, and Tournay surrendered to him. Ghent, at which town the heiress resided with her step-mother the duchess, held out against Louis, to whom Mary wrote clandestinely, intimating that she had no objection to the marriage with the dauphin; this letter being shown to the people of Ghent, justly excited her hatred of the French, and after many intrigues she became the wife of Maximilian of Austria, the son of Frederick. War was the consequence. Burgundy revolted, headed by the treacherous Prince of Orange, long since in the French interests; but Artois was bravely defended by the Flemings, who, under Maximilian, defeated the French at Guinegate, and completely crippled the king, who was compelled to a treaty, at Arras, 1482, by which the dauphin was to be united to the daughter of Maximilian (Margaret), and receive Artois and Burgundy (Franche Comte) as a dowry. The marriage, however, never took place, and the dauphin (when Charles VIII.) resigned the provinces. On the subjection of the Tyrol by Maximilian, the remnant of the Hapsburgian possessions in Switzerland were sold to that prince by the wretched Duke Sigismund, who was universally hated by his subjects for his cruel and rapacious conduct. The Austrian possessions were therefore, on the demise of Frederick, concentrated under one head.

§ 46.

THE ITALIAN STATES.

A. Upper Italy.

1. Venice, during the period of the crusades, had been raised to the rank of a first-rate commercial and maritime power, and possessed most of the islands and maritime cities on the coasts of the Byzantine empire, which were freely distributed among the nobility, who ruled over them under the titles of dukes or counts. To this power the republic of Genoa was opposed, and a rivalry between them for the commerce of the East, embroiled the two powers in a war, which lasted for upwards of 125 years (1256—1381), when Venice, after the battle of Chiozza, compelled the Genoese to surrender their fleet (1280), and in 1381, concluded a peace, which left things in much the same state as before the commencement of the war. Venice was, about the middle of the fifteenth century, at the zenith of its power. The whole of the Indian trade, by the way of Egypt, was secured to it by a treaty with the Sultan of Egypt, who opened to them the port of Alexandria, while, partly by conquest and partly by treaty, its possessions in Upper Italy extended over the whole eastern portion of Lombardy, as far as Bergamo and Brescia, and in Dalmatia, nearly the whole of the sea coast. In 1387, it had acquired the island of Corfu, and in 1489, that of Cyprus. The advance of the Osman Turks into Europe, however, gradually deprived them of their possessions in the East. In 1460, Mahomet II. seized the duchy of Athens, and in 1479, the Venetians were glad to conclude a peace with the sultan, who had cut off their commerce with the East, by resigning all their possessions in Illyria and the Morea.

When Venice had succeeded in establishing itself as a republic, it was at first governed by an elective Doge, or duke, whose power was vested in the assemblies of the people. In 1032, these assemblies were superseded by a council, chosen from among the most illustrious citizens, and termed *Pregadi* (invited), but in 1172, the sovereign authority was vested in the hands of the Grand Council, composed of 480 members. To them belonged the filling up of all the offices of state. To concentrate the government, the grand council appointed from among themselves, six councillors of the red robe, who, with the doge, formed the *Signoria*, and without them the doge could not perform any public act. In 1297, a great change was effected; the grand council was

no longer to be elected by the people, but as they had always consisted of the same persons or families, the election was to be abolished, and their fitness for office was to be determined by the forty criminal judges of the republic, who refused the re-election of any of the members against whom any charges of delinquency could be proved. Thus, an hereditary aristocracy was formed, whose government was equitable and impartial. In 1311, the creation of the Council of Ten (sixteen?) took place, who wore black robes, in contrast to the red of the Signoria. Their office was supplied from the members of the great council, who changed every four months. A register, called *The Golden Book*, was kept of the names of all the members who had sat in the council, the number of which, at length (1319), became unlimited; the male descendant of any counsellor, of the age of twenty-five years, being entitled to a seat in the senate. Among the most remarkable conspiracies for the overthrow of the nobles, was that which was led by the newly elected doge, Marino Faliero (1355), who planned their assassination; it was betrayed to the council of ten by some of the conspirators, and the doge expiated his crime with his life. In consequence of this discovery, the council, under the pretext of exercising more watchfulness over the affairs of the republic, assumed an arbitrary course of conduct, and instituted the odious office of State Inquisitors (1454), in whom was vested unlimited powers, and who conducted their proceedings in secrecy; their mode of government, like their barbarous and cruel deeds, was shrouded in a mysterious darkness.

2. Milan. In 1302, the Guelphs forced the Ghibeline Viscontis to fly from Milan, and installed the Della Torres in their place. Henry invited them to return, and soon after they were restored to the sovereign power again, and the Guelphs, in their turn, were driven from the duchy. Henry, however, determined to extirpate the Ghibelines, upon whom he at last inflicted a severe blow; he dispatched his nephew, the papal legate, Bertrand, from Provence into Lombardy, with a large army, there to oppose Matteo Visconti, the reigning duke, who, however, triumphed over all the power brought against him for upwards of twenty years; at length superstitious fears possessed him, and fearing the excommunication of the papal legate, he resigned his duchy to his son, Galeazzo, and soon after died (1322). After the death of Matteo, and of Henry, the Guelphs were again successful, and Galeazzo was compelled to flee. In 1328, the duchy reverted again to the house of the Viscontis, by purchase from Louis of Bavaria, the emperor, and in 1353, the republic of Genoa submitted itself to them. In 1366, however, they freed themselves from their dominion. The Viscontis, however, still triumphed over the cities of Lombardy, of which they possessed the most considerable. In 1395, for 100,000 florins, a diploma from

the Emperor Wenceslas, installed Gian Galeazzo, the son of Galeazzo, duke of Milan, and count of Pavia, into the possessions which embraced also twenty-six cities, with their territories, as far as the Lagunes of Venice. On the death of the last male of the house of Visconti (1447), the Condottière, Francesco Sforza, after acting as the captain-general of the Milanese, assumed the title and took possession of the dukedom, by the surrender of the city of Milan (1449). This great man soon after subdued the republic of Genoa, and made his possessions hereditary in his family.

3. Genoa, after the expulsion of the counts by whom the cities were governed, was raised into a republic, and ruled at first by a foreign Podesta, and subsequently by a Captain-general, subject to a Captain of the People (1257). Like Venice, Genoa owed her rise to the commercial transactions entered into during the crusades. The succour afforded to the Greeks, as well as to the crusaders, procured them great commercial advantages, and the possession of many valuable sea ports, and islands in the Morea, and the Archipelago, as well as Caffa, on the Black Sea, Smyrna, in Asia Minor, and the Constantinopolitan suburbs, Pera, and Galata. Genoa, however, had a formidable rival in Pisa, which was also a flourishing commercial republic, and contended with her for the supremacy of the Middle or Mediterranean Sea, and the possession of the islands Corsica and Sardinia. After a sanguinary war of two hundred years, Genoa effected the ruin of the Pisan republic, and the conquest of Elba (1290), Sardinia (1299), and Corsica (1326). Genoa, however, itself was doomed to fall. A protracted war with the Venetians and Milanese, combined with internal factions, so weakened her government, that the Genoese republic at length became a part of the duchy of Milan (1458). It subsequently (1396) became for a while subject to France, and in 1499 was again in the hands of the French, until 1522.

B. Central Italy.

1. Florence had early risen to be the chief city of the Tuscan League, and in 1250, freed itself from the Ghibeline nobles, and was ruled by the captains of the fifty groups, or sections, into which the government had been divided, who composed their council, at the head of which was a podesta. This magistrate afterwards, with another, termed captain, gave

way to the signoria, a supreme magistracy, under which they acted. In 1254, the two cities of Pistoia and Volterra were captured, and the fortress of Pietra Santa erected. Towards the close of the thirteenth century, the trade corporations, called *arti*, were constituted (major and minor *arti*) (higher and lower guilds); the members of the major *arti* were admitted to a share in the government. At first, the number admitted was confined to three, but it was afterwards increased to six. Those who composed the *popolo grosso*, or commonalty, did not belong to any guild. The members of the major *arti* were chiefly merchants, dealers in gold, and other precious metals (bankers), stuffs, silks, &c., the produce of the East. At length they became the governors of the state, until, in 1342, they were compelled by the people to delegate their authority to the son of the Duke of Athens, whom they named Captain of Justice, and entrusted with the command of their army. He soon, by intrigue, was proclaimed Lord of Florence for life, but the Florentines were speedily disgusted by his proceedings, and conspired against him, when he fled to Naples, with upwards of 400,000 golden florins (1343). The republic was again established, and, with the rest of Italy, was constantly engaged in resisting the ambitious projects of the Viscontis. About the middle of the fifteenth century, the family of the Medici began to obtain the ascendancy in Florence. They had always (from 1378) maintained friendship with the minor *arti*, and, from their immense wealth, became objects of envy to the princes and nobles. In 1416, Cosmo de Medici, who had counting-houses in all the chief cities of Europe, and oriental marts, was elected one of the *priori*, and endeavoured to obtain for the middle class the privilege of entering the magistracy, and also of taking a part in the government. This effort drew upon him the vengeance of his rivals, who procured his banishment. In the following year (1434), Cosmo, with his friends, was recalled, and his enemies, driven from Florence, took refuge in Milan. Cosmo, in possession of the government, made Florence the seat of the arts and sciences; artists, poets, and learned men, resorted to his palace, the most sumptuous in the republic, and partook of his generosity and opulence, while his purse was open to almost every citizen who sought his aid. Nor was his patronage of the arts confined to Florence, but extended through-

out the Tuscan territory, Umbria, and Venice, and even to the holy city of Jerusalem. Cosmo, after governing Florence for thirty years, died greatly lamented, and was honoured in the following year by having inscribed on his tomb the title of Father of his Country. Pietro (Peter) his son, succeeded, and having crippled the commerce of Florence by withdrawing the loans of his father from the merchants, and others, with whom he was in partnership, made many enemies. Unable, from hereditary gout, which disabled him from walking or riding, he committed the government to six of his friends, who enriched themselves at the expense of the republic. In 1469, he died, and was followed by the celebrated Lorenzo de Medici, against whom the great conspiracy of the Pazzi, under papal influence, was directed. On its failure, Lorenzo assumed the title of Prince, and ruled with absolute power over the citizens. In 1492, he breathed his last, in his forty-fourth year, after a reign marked by serious calamities and reverses. Like Cosmo, his grandfather, he was a passionate lover of the fine arts, and helped to raise Florence to the rank of a second Athens.

2. States of the Church, or Patrimony of St. Peter. These consisted of several great and small principalities, duchies, etc., which, although nominally subject to the pope, were more frequently not only in a state of alienation from, but of open hostility to, the papal see. The more important were the duchy of Rome, and the ancient republic of Bologna, the principalities of Benevento, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino, and Camerino. During the residence of the popes at Avignon (*the captivity*), a period of seventy years (1305—1376), several cities and towns, under the control of their tyrants or governors, threw off the papal yoke, and Rome itself was shaken to its very foundation by the repeated insurrections which occurred within its walls, especially during the tribunate of Cola, Rienzi, and the deadly feuds which raged between the families of the Colonna (Ghibelines), and Orsini (Guelphs). Nor was it until the end of this period, that the reunion of the ecclesiastical states was effected, and the legitimate pope took up his residence at Rome. Avignon was purchased (1348), and added to the papal see, which was still further enriched by the territories of the Venascin, left to the pope by Philip III. of France.

C. In Lower Italy.

In Naples, the scene of sanguinary wars between the houses of Anjou and Arragon, the former held possession until 1442, when Alfonso v., king of Sicily, subdued the King of Naples, and received the investiture of the kingdom from Pope Eugenius iv.; thus, the two kingdoms, which had been long separated, were once more united. On the death of Alfonso (1468), however, they were again separated. Naples he left to his brother John, now king of Arragon, and Sicily to his natural son, Ferdinand, by Margaret de Hajar, whose issue occupied the throne until 1504.

§ 47.

FRANCE.

A. Under the last of the Capetian Kings (Capets), 1270—1328.

Philip III., or the Hardy (1270—1285), continued the war against the Arabs of Tunis, after the death of his father (Louis). At length, however, hostilities were terminated by a treaty effected by Charles of Anjou, on whom the command of the French army had devolved. After the expulsion of the French from Sicily, at the Sicilian Vespers, Philip espoused the cause of his uncle, Charles, and entered Spain with a numerous army, to crush the power of Arragon, whose king had now taken the Angevine kingdom of Sicily. Charles, king of Naples and Anjou, who had arrived at Naples from Africa, endeavoured to reach Sicily with his fleet, to drive out the Spaniards, but a terrible storm dispersed his ships, and rendered it impossible. Philip, with his army, intended to have taken forcible possession of Arragon, as a reprisal for the loss of Sicily, he however proceeded no farther than Gerona, which he took, and died of a fever at Perpignan, in 1285.

Peter III. of Arragon having taken possession of Sicily, the pope presented Philip III. with Peter's kingdom of Arragon, and the county of Barcelona for his second son, Charles; but on the French king attempting to take possession, he met with his death (as above).

Philip the Fair (le Bel, 1285—1311), in his father's lifetime, had married Joanna, the queen of Navarre, and was therefore king of that country in right of his wife. On his succession to the French crown, he still carried on the war against the Arragonese, which was not terminated until 1295, when Sicily was nominally restored to the house of Anjou.

Philip, who resembled his ancestor in character, cheated the more powerful by artifice and falsehood, and by craft and violence overwhelmed inferiors. Jealous of the English monarch, Edward I., he intrigued with the subjects of the latter in Guienne, the duchy of which he was determined to wrest out of his hands. Philip, feigning a series of insults from the people of Guienne, and demanding satisfaction for an attack upon the French ships, by some sailors of England, summoned Edward to appear before the parliament of Paris, to answer for them. The latter sent his brother Edmund to Paris, to satisfy the crafty Philip, who demanded that one or two of his officers should be admitted, with nominal authority, into the duchy; which, with other stipulations being agreed to, the officers of Philip possessed themselves of the chief towns of the duchy, and eventually became masters of the whole of Guienne. Edward, engaged at home with Baliol and Bruce, could afford no real assistance to his French subjects, but succeeded in engaging the Flemings in a war against Philip, who, at first, was victorious, and obtained, for a while, the duchy of Flanders; but in consequence of the rapacity of his lieutenants, it was soon lost, and on the rebellion of Bordeaux, Guienne was restored to the English. Philip, meanwhile, quarrelled with the pope, the haughty Cajetan, Boniface VIII. Philip taxed the ecclesiastical revenues one-tenth, and the pope threatened excommunication against any that should pay the tax. Philip, although excommunicated, continued his proceedings; and after imprisoning the papal legate, entered Italy with an army, and seized the pope, who soon after died from the effects of the indignities heaped upon him. Benedict IX. (archbishop of Bordeaux) was elected as the successor of Boniface, and agreeably to the wishes of Philip, resided at Avignon. He commenced by taking proceedings against those who had attacked Boniface at Anagni, but was soon poisoned. Through the intrigues of Philip, Bertrand de Goth (archbishop of Bordeaux) was, after the lapse of some months, elected, and became the creature of the French monarch, even condemning the memory of Boniface, and exculpating his accusers. To be near his patron, the pontifical court was fixed first at Poitiers, then at Avignon, which continued to be the papal residence from 1305 to 1376.*

* For the persecution of the Templars, and the dissolution of their order, see page 164.

The events of Philip's reign were a series of acts of injustice: he was named the *Faux Monnoyeur*, or falsifier of coin. He was continually altering the standard, and not unfrequently ordered the coin and plate of his subjects to be brought to his mint, when he paid for it in coin of an inferior value. This created an insurrection, which the officers of Philip, however, soon put down. During his reign, the *parliament* was fixed at Paris, and personal service, or serfdom, was abolished by a decree. He was also, probably, the founder of the *états généraux*, or States-general; and favoured the burgesses of towns; while he also frequently summoned the deputies of the towns, whom he enrolled as a separate order, and thus established a *third estate* (Tiers Etat).

Philip left three sons, each of whom reigned in succession. Adultery and murders marked the two years' reign of Louis Hutin x. (1314—1316). Philip v. followed, but for a while only, as regent for the infant son of Louis Hutin (born after his death). The infant John I. soon died, and Philip was crowned king, to the exclusion of the daughter of Louis x., whose rights were unjustly passed over. Philip died, 1322.

The first instance of the crown descending, to the *exclusion of females*, took place during the reign of Philip v., who, with the aid of the great Duke of Burgundy, seized the French crown, to the injury of the daughter of Louis; and that this *Salic* law or custom might be confirmed, Philip caused it to be sanctioned by the States-general. This, at his death, operated against the succession of his own daughters (he had no male issue): hence the Count of Valois, third son of Philip the Fair, succeeded to the throne.

Charles iv., the next male claimant to the crown, took the place of Philip v., but only reigned six years, and died without leaving any offspring. The male line of the Capetians was therefore extinct, and Philip, the count of Valois, ascended to the throne of France.

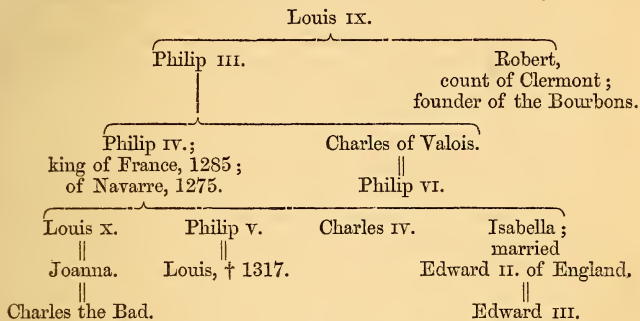
On the accession of the Count of Valois, the little kingdom of Navarre passed over to Joanna, the daughter of Louis x., probably the more easily to prevent her laying any claims to that of France; and Navarre was detached from that kingdom until re-united to France, under the Bourbons, in 1589.

B. Under Kings of the House of Valois, 1328—1589.

Philip of Valois vi., 1328—1350.

This period of history is marked by the rivalry that sprung up between France and England, and became national. It was no longer carried on by men speaking the same language, and actuated merely by provincial interests, but a strife of bitterness and inveteracy seems to have been felt by the warriors of both countries, in the midst of which, however, many generous deeds of chivalry were exhibited, and out of which arose future advantages to both nations. Edward III. disputed

with Philip the French crown. He was the son of Isabella, the daughter of Philip the Fair, and was hence, as his grandson, considered by many of the legal doctors of France, to have a just and valid claim to the sovereignty. The Count of Ervieux, who had married the daughter of Louis Hutin, also made out a claim: the kingdom of Navarre, as an apanage, however, pacified him.



Notwithstanding the valid claims of Edward to the crown of France, he was unwilling to enforce them by an appeal to arms. Philip, however, a little elevated by his success against the Flemings, whose army he had routed and dispersed at Cassel, summoned Edward, as his vassal, to pay homage for Guienne. This order the English monarch obeyed, and but for the persuasions of Count Robert of Artois, would not have engaged in the war which followed between the French and English, and which extended over a period of upwards of 100 years. Robert, who had forged certain documents to establish his claim to the county of Artois, on being banished, took refuge in England; and Philip, in revenge, supported the Scotch in their wars against Edward, who now assumed the title of King of France, and formed an alliance with the Flemish citizens, especially with Artaveldt, the brewer of Gaunt, or Ghent. The only engagement which took place in this war, was off the coast of Sluys, where Edward, with his few ships, found the French fleet close to the shore. He hooked vessel to vessel, and thus made one level platform, upon which he not only attacked and defeated the French, but also totally destroyed their fleet (1340). In 1345, the war again broke out, but was confined to Brittany, under the Earl of Derby. In 1346, Edward, with the Prince of Wales, and the flower of his nobility, resolved to

strike, if possible, a final blow; and after leaving the coast of Flanders, he landed at La Hogue, took Caen, and marched on to Paris, burning all the towns in the vicinity of the capital. He now retreated northwards, forcing the passage of the Somme, until, on the following day, he pitched his camp at Crecy, waiting the arrival of Philip from Abbeville. The French, despite their immense numbers, were defeated. Eleven princes fell, together with 100 nobles having banners, 1,200 chevaliers, and 30,000 soldiers. The loss of the English was 2,588. Philip took to flight, and the victorious Edward next laid siege to Calais: it fell; its distress had been great; but the devotedness of its six burgesses, who delivered themselves up to the mercy of Edward, was only equalled by the sympathies of the queen, whose tears and entreaties alone saved them from the anger of Edward, who remained inexorable. Edward removed the inhabitants, and endeavoured to colonize the city with his English subjects. The scheme, however, failed, and it became a sort of asylum for outcasts. Among the first to return was St. Pierre, one of the six burgesses, whom Edward had been led to pardon. Calais remained in the hands of the English for upwards of two hundred years, and became the favourite continental possession of the crown to England. A truce was now concluded, and Edward returned to England. France now became the scene of a pestilence termed the *Black Plague*, which carried off one-third of its population, and ravaged the whole of Europe. In 1349, the Dauphine came into possession of the king by purchase from the extravagant and dissolute Count of Vermandois. Champagne and Brie were surrendered for Angoulême and Mortagnes, by the King of Navarre. These provinces, however, had the right of taxation secured to them. Philip died, 1350, and was succeeded by his son.

John the Good, 1350—1364.

On his accession, John endeavoured to convert the truce between France and England into a settled peace, but was not successful. His early efforts, like those of his father, were directed to the adulteration of the coin, and a pernicious levying of taxes on every sale that took place. In 1355, the States-general appointed receivers, and directed the collection of it from the nobles and the prelates, as well as from the burgesses, and agreed that they should meet again in the following year, to make fresh taxes. This threw the kingdom

into a ferment, which the turbulent King of Navarre, and many of the nobility, used every effort to increase. A short period after, the King of Navarre and Count of Harcourt were seized while at dinner with the king's son, and murdered, by order of the king. This proceeding excited the people, and caused many of the nobles to renounce their allegiance. At this juncture, Edward of England arrived, expecting to be joined by the discontented barons and sovereign of Navarre, with whom he had, sometime before, allied: he was, however, joined by their followers. After ravaging Auvergne, Limousin, Edward entered Berri, but having only 6,000 archers and infantry, and 2,000 men-at-arms, he thought it prudent to retreat before the larger army of John, which was 60,000 strong, and was endeavouring to blockade his retreat. The line of battle was drawn up at Maupertuis, near Poitiers; and after another vain attempt at reconciliation by the papal legates, the action commenced, and Edward was again victorious. John, and his younger son, Philip, were amongst the prisoners, who were taken to London, and kindly treated by the conqueror. The government of France was now carried on by Charles, the dauphin, who had escaped, and a truce for two years was entered into. The loss of the French was 11,000; that of the English, 2,400; and the prisoners taken, twice the number of themselves, besides vast spoils in gold and silver plate, jewels, furred mantles, &c. (1356). The first act of Charles was to summons the States-general, those of the south (Langue d'Oc) meeting at Toulouse, and those of the north (Langue d'Oil) at Paris; the latter imposing conditions upon Charles, by which his authority was limited, the former granting him levies of men and money. The dauphin, however, dissolved the states, and resorted to the oft-repeated experiment of debasing the coin. An insurrection followed, which was headed by the favourite deputies, Marcel and Le Cocq, who placed on the head of the dauphin a *Chaperon*, or cap, then, as now, the symbol of revolution. The King of Navarre was released, and headed the disaffected; but the dauphin prevailed, when the former was banished the capital, and Marcel was slain in a tumult. The mutual hatred between the nobles and the peasants, however, did not end here; the latter, since the defeats of Poitiers and Crecy, looked upon the discomfited knights and barons with contempt, and felt their own position, in

not being allowed to wield a sword, to be degrading. This discontent, too, was much augmented by the necessary increase of taxes upon the tenantry for the redemption of their masters: hence the rebellion of the *Jaquerie* or *Villains* (Peasants or Labourers), which had for its object the destruction of all the nobility and gentry of the kingdom. Happily such a diabolical movement was soon crushed, their last resort, *Meaux*, was reduced to ashes, with all the villains that were shut up in it. In the midst of these calamities, Edward III., whose overtures had been rejected by France, prepared for an invasion. He entered *Champagne* (1358), and besieged *Rheims*; rising from this city, he marched to *Paris*, and challenged the dauphin, who was too cautious, and evaded an engagement, and proceeded to destroy the towns and villages in the vicinity: hence, Edward was compelled, by want of provisions, to depart. In 1360, a peace was signed at *Bretigny*, when Edward gave up his pretensions to the crown of France, as well as to *Normandy*. All *Aquitaine*, and the provinces south-west of the *Loire*, and the sea coast from *Calais* to the *Somme*, were ceded to England, in full sovereignty. Three millions of crowns were to be given as the ransom of the French king, who was to reside at *Calais* until the payment of the first instalment. *John* was liberated, 1361, and reigned three years after, when he returned to *London*, to negotiate with Edward respecting the escape of one of his hostages from *Calais*, *Louis of Anjou*. He died at the *Savoy* palace, in *London*, 1364. In 1363, the duchy of *Burgundy*, having become extinct, reverted to the crown. *John* presented it as an apanage to his son *Philip* (duke of *Touraine*), who, subsequently, marrying the heiress of the Count of *Flanders*, obtained those extensive territories also.

Charles v., the Sage (1364—1380), had long reigned as dauphin, and acquired much experience. He first directed his efforts against the treacherous and intriguing King of *Navarre*, who laid claim to the duchy of *Burgundy*; but the general of *Charles*, *Bertrand du Guesclin*, a young knight who had signaled himself in the wars of *Brittany*, defeated and took *de Grailli* prisoner at *Cocherel*, when the King of *Navarre*, for the present, gave up the contest. The succession to *Brittany* was, however, still undecided; *du Guesclin* and *Charles of Blois* were sent into *Brittany*, to enforce the claims of *Charles v.*,

where they were opposed by Sir John Chandos and John de Montfort. Guesclin was defeated, and taken prisoner, and Philip was slain: 5,000 of the vanquished perished on the field. De Montfort, the ally of Edward, was now recognised as duke, and the wars of Brittany were closed, after having lasted upwards of twenty-five years. In 1366, Guesclin was ransomed from Sir John Chandos, to head an expedition against Navarre, accompanied by bands of mercenary soldiers, who, left without employment or pay, ravaged the country in every direction. The pope endeavoured to preserve his domains by granting them absolution, which they readily accepted, but immediately began to contract fresh guilt, by not sparing even the papal domains. Guesclin, with his mercenaries, drove the intruder, Peter, from Castile; but on Edward espousing the cause of Peter, who had fled to Bordeaux, to seek his assistance, the fortunes of the latter changed. Du Guesclin was defeated by Edward at Nojera, with great slaughter, and taken prisoner, and Peter was placed upon the throne of Leon and Castile. Edward, however, returned sick to Bordeaux, and being in want of funds to defray the expense of his expeditions, he levied a tax upon his subjects, which led to resistance, and an appeal from the Aquitanians to Charles, who summoned his vassal to appear and answer the charges. The reply was characteristic of the hero—to obey “at the head of 60,000 men.” War was declared on both sides. The Black Prince, enfeebled by dropsy, was carried on a litter to Limoges, which had been treacherously given up to the Duke of Berri. Edward invested the city, and Guesclin did all he could to relieve it, but in vain: it fell, and Edward had all the inhabitants put to the sword. The traitorous bishop who had given up the city to the duke was pardoned. The malady of Edward increasing, he was compelled to return to England, and died at Canterbury, 1370. On the return of Edward to England, Guesclin had been appointed constable of France, and now took the command against the English under Lancaster, changing entirely the former mode of warfare. Guesclin’s orders were rigorously obeyed; no fighting took place in the open plains, and the troops maintained themselves in walled towns: hence the strength of the English was completely wasted; the French were nowhere to be found, and famine destroyed more of the English men-at-arms than French discipline and valour. Poitiers revolted,

and Rochelle followed its example: thus the fruits of Edward's victories were gone. The last engagement was before Chizai, when the little English army was well nigh butchered by Guesclin, who hated them. A truce for one year was concluded at Bruges, and subsequently extended, with a view to the establishment of a final peace, to which the possession of Calais became the grand obstacle (1375). Charles once more endeavoured to add Brittany to the French crown, but even Guesclin opposed this attempt to destroy the independence of the nobility, and on his loyalty being called in question, resigned his office of constable. Soon after, this consummate warrior died while rescuing a castle in Languedoc (Chateau-neuf de Randau). The Duke of Brittany, after a few skirmishes, regained his dukedom. Charles died at Beauté Castle, 1380, having survived his rival, Edward III., only three years.

CHARLES VI. (1380—1422) succeeded his father at the age of twelve years, and being a minor, his tutelage was contended for by his four uncles,—the dukes of Anjou, Berri, Burgundy, and Bourbon. The Duke of Anjou pillaged the royal treasures, and left the coffers empty. The regent (Duke of Anjou) having declared the monarch fit to assume the crown, a council was appointed, and the coronation of the youthful monarch took place. His first feat in arms was before Rosebecque, near Upres, where the Flemings and Ghentois, under the son of Artavelde, the brewer, were defeated, with a dreadful slaughter, and the cause of the commons against the aristocracy weakened. Full enjoyment of privileges were, however, ensured to the vanquished citizens.

The battle of Rosebecque proved most unfortunate for the communes of France, who were everywhere resisting the oppressive power of the aristocracy, now ruling with absolute sway, in the name of the young king, who in vain endeavoured to release himself from the tutelage of his uncles. The citizens of Paris were sent by hundreds to the scaffold, as a terror to all the other cities and towns, where similar executions took place on resisting the royal ordinances. In 1382, the king emancipated himself from his uncles' control, and chose de Clisson as his constable, who was murderously attacked by de Craon. The king, on proceeding into Brittany, whither de Craon had fled, to revenge the injuries of his constable, was seized with insanity, when the government was again in the hands of the Duke of Burgundy.

It was just at the close of the fourteenth century, that the breaking forth of the differences between the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans took place, who had disputed with each other about the regency. Civil wars raged throughout the kingdom, the good of the public was entirely neglected, and both uncle and nephew pillaged the treasury whenever an opportunity occurred, and then threw the blame upon his rival. Both had their armies in Paris, but on the absence of Burgundy to settle the affairs of his duchy, Orleans forged a public ordinance in his name, which, on the return of the duke, being protested against, the Parisians rose against him, and Burgundy possessed the city, which he kept until the murder of the Duke of Orleans by the hired assassins of Burgundy. By the marriage of the young Duke of Orleans with the daughter of Armagnac, a Gascon nobleman, the Orleans party revived, and the war became marked with inhuman ferocity on both sides. In the midst of these dissensions, the youthful Henry v. mounted the English throne, and prompted to emulate the heroic valour of the Black Prince, he raised an army, and embarked for France. Harfleur, after a short siege, fell into his hands, when he marched towards Calais, and met the French, by their own appointment, near the village of Agincourt: 10,000 of the French were slain, including a large number of the nobility (1415). Burgundy, by the captivity of the Duke of Orleans, and the death of the constable, and other leaders of the Orleans faction, was at once in the ascendancy, and took possession of Paris with 10,000 horse. The Orleanists were inhumanly massacred by the *Butchers* and the Burgundian rabble, who even forced the prisons, and murdered the wretched victims singly, as they issued forth. Henry meanwhile pursued his triumphs, and possessed himself of Normandy. Rouen surrendered, 1419. Paris was next the object of his ambition. The onward march of the conqueror tended to bring about a union between the contending parties, and a meeting was appointed for the purpose. The Armagnacs (Orleanists), however, resolved to make it the occasion of avenging the assassination of Orleans; hence when the dauphin and Burgundy met on the bridge of Montereau, to arrange the preliminaries of a common peace, the more successfully to resist the English, the duke was struck down with a battle-axe, in the very presence of the dauphin, who did not deny his approval of the deed. Paris became enraged against the

dauphin, and the young Duke of Burgundy, yet in the possession of the capital, hastened to lay the crown of France at the feet of the English monarch. The treaty of Troyes was soon after concluded, when Isabel, the queen, signed for the imbecile king, her husband. By this treaty, Henry was united to the king's sister Catharine, and to succeed to the throne of France, which, until the recovery or death of the king, he was to rule as regent. Burgundy, and the other nobles, did homage to Henry for their fiefs, and the Parisians, with the States-general, rejoiced at the conclusion which had been come to. The dauphin had recourse to arms, and the Duke of Clarence, who led the English, was killed, with 3,000 men-at-arms, at Baugé. Henry, who had withdrawn to London with his bride, hastened to Paris, to repair the disaster. Henry besieged Meux, which surrendered; and the commander was hanged. The dauphin, who had been joined by the Scottish nobility, having besieged Cone, Henry hastened to relieve it, but was seized with dysentery, and expired, in 1422, at Vincennes. The afflicted Charles VI. died two months afterwards, when France was, by the consent of the council of state, ruled over by the Duke of Bedford, as regent for the infant prince of Catharine and Henry.

CHARLES VII. (1422-1461).—France was now divided between rival monarchs. Henry VI., the infant son of Henry V. of England (and France), was proclaimed at Paris, and the northern parts of the kingdom acknowledged the Duke of Bedford as regent. The counties south of the Loire were in favour of the dauphin, Charles VII., who resided at Bourges, and was supported by the Scots under the Earl of Buchan, who was created constable of France. At an engagement which took place at Vermeuil, the French and Scots were defeated, and the earls of Buchan and Douglas were slain. Charles now fell back upon Orleans, which was besieged by the English, when, just as the city was about to surrender, the celebrated *Joan of Arc* appeared, reviving the courage of the besieged. She affirmed that her mission was to deliver her country from the English, to raise the siege of Orleans, and bring the dauphin Charles to be crowned as king at Rheims. Superstition seemed to deprive the stout-hearted besiegers of their courage, and to elevate the besieged beyond measure. Joan soon sallied forth from the city walls against the English, and compelled them to raise the siege (1429). Soon after

Troyes surrendered, and Rheims fell. Thus the maid appeared to have fulfilled her promise, and Charles VII. was crowned. Paris was next attacked, but proved too powerful. Joan was wounded, and with the French retreated to Compeigne, where she fell into the hands of the English, by whom she was burned in the market place of Rouen (1431). The Duke of Burgundy now joined Charles, who soon obtained by treachery the city of Paris (1437). A truce was concluded at Arras, on the death of the regent Bedford, when the struggle between the two nations was confined to a few sieges, mostly to the disadvantage of the English, who were at that time too much occupied in the wars of the Roses. In 1449, on the expiration of the truce, Rouen was captured; and after the battle of Fournigny, Normandy was for ever lost to the English. In the next year, Guienne was invaded; but Talbot, now eighty years of age, was unable, with his 5,000 men, to oppose the countless numbers of Charles, who attacked him near Bordeaux. The veteran and his son perished, and the province of Guienne, as well as Normandy, was totally lost. Calais was now the only remaining possession of the English in France. Charles reigned ten years after having completed the conquest of his kingdom, and was chiefly occupied with the turbulence of the dauphin, who was compelled to take flight into Burgundy. Charles closed his active reign in 1461, when he died at the village of Meung sur Yèvre.

The reforms of Charles were the principal ground of disaffection between him and the nobles, who were aided by the dauphin, his eldest son. Charles resolved to imitate the English, and trained the country population to arms, dispensing with the feudal method of raising armies, and establishing a standing army of his own, to be ready on any occasion. In addition, he formed companies of cavalry, and ordered that each village should supply an expert archer, who in time of war should receive pay, and in peace be exempt from *taille*, or tax. These were named *franc archers*, or free sharp shooters, and were only called forth at the king's bidding. The cavalry were paid by a tax levied on the towns, which yielded a revenue independent of the States-general, which were therefore useless, and never summoned. The French nobles consented to this illegal impost, for the sake of pensions granted to them out of the sums levied in their several domains, and were the first to assert that the right of taxation belonged to the king, without the consent of the subject, a conclusion quite opposed to that spirit of constitutional freedom which had been so long developing itself in England.

Louis XI. (1461—1483), on his accession, expressed his indignation against the counsellors of his father, whom he

banished from the court, choosing in lieu of them men of low birth, who displayed talent, and who could be attached to his person, and submissive. By perfidy, cunning, and fraud, he contrived to humble the power of the greater nobility, whom he had stripped of their offices, deprived of their pensions, and in many cases imprisoned; hence a league was formed against him, termed (*le bien public*), the league of the public good, and a civil war broke out between the king and his nobility. The Burgundians, under Count Charlerois, were partially defeated, but Louis, hearing that the dukes of Brittany and Berri were also in arms, proposed a peace, by which Burgundy had the towns on the Somme restored, which Louis had paid for dearly. Normandy was given to the Duke of Berri, while the other princes obtained all that they demanded. Louis, as soon as the league was dissolved, however, commenced recovering all that he had yielded; Normandy and Brittany were seized; but the young Duke of Burgundy, who had succeeded his father, resisted. Louis, who hoped by persuasion to bend the inflexible duke, visited his head quarters at Peronne, where he was confined, until he had agreed to chastise the Liegeois, whom he had induced to overrun the territories of the duke; after witnessing the destruction of his allies, Louis was allowed to depart. The Duke of Berri, in lieu of Normandy, finally received Guienne; soon after he leagued with the king, his brother, against Burgundy, whose daughter, after a series of infamous intrigues, he insisted upon marrying. His early death, however (by poison?), prevented the continuance of civil war, and a treaty was negotiated, 1472. The Duke of Burgundy, to release himself from the vassalage of Louis, endeavoured to procure the election of his duchy into a kingdom, from the German emperor (see page 237). On the death of the duke, Louis seized Burgundy and Artois, as a lapsed fief, together with the towns on the Somme; Boulogne, Arras, and Tournay. His efforts to secure the Burgundian territories in Flanders failed, and a war between the Duke of Austria and the French king was the result (see page 238). Louis was signally defeated before Guinegate, the battle of which determined him to re-organize his army. The *franc archers* were abolished, and paid Swiss soldiers, armed with pikes, halberds, and two-handed swords, introduced into their place. The *arquebuss* superseded the *bow and arrow*. The treaty of Arras, after the death of Mary, the Burgundian

heirss, terminated the conflict. Burgundy proper, and Picardy, were secured to Louis, as his share of the spoil, and in a short time after, on the death of René, he seized Provence and Anjou, which René II. endeavoured in vain to acquire. On the extinction of the house of Anjou (originating with John the Good), Louis also came into the possession of Provence, Anjou, and Maine, together with the claims of that house to the crown of Naples. Thus Louis had completed all his great schemes; the greater nobility had been humbled, Burgundy was virtually destroyed, and nearly all the great fiefs had been added to the royal domains; Brittany, not yet added, was about to be annexed, by the marriage of Charles the dauphin with the heirss of that duchy (1491). Louis, anxious to prolong his existence, of which he dreaded the termination, drank blood drawn from the veins of infants; but his efforts to evade the dart of the dreaded enemy were of no avail: he died at Plessis, 1483.

CHARLES VIII. (1483—1498), was only thirteen years of age when he succeeded to the throne. Agreeably to the wishes of Louis, the assembly conferred upon Anne, the sister of the king, the custody of the young monarch, who had been denied by his father the privilege of education. The Orleans party remonstrated, but in vain. On an appeal to arms, he was driven by La Tremouille into Italy (Asti). He soon after escaped into Brittany, where he leagued with the duke (whose daughter he sought in marriage), and others, against the regent, Anne. The Bretons, although they had clothed themselves as Englishmen, to intimidate the French, were worsted at Nantes and Orleans, and the Prince of Orange was taken prisoner. The Duke of Brittany soon after died, and his daughter and heirss, Anne, was affianced to the King of the Romans, Maximilian. This was, however, set aside by the intrigues of the court, and the good offices of Orleans, who was released from prison, and ended in the marriage of the heirss with the young king, who now added Brittany to the crown. In 1494, the intriguing Ludovico Sforza, the enemy of the reigning sovereign of Naples, urged Charles to press his claims upon that kingdom, and promised to render him assistance; accordingly, the latter entered Lombardy with a large army, but did not meet with the promised help from Sforza. Florence, however, under the Medici, gave up some fortresses, and Charles entered Lucca and Pisa, and subsequently, the

city of Florence, when the traitor Medici was put to flight. Charles also captured the city of Rome; and the pope took refuge in the castle of St. Angelo. On his arriving before Naples, Ferdinand, the king, escaped to Ischia, and Charles entered in triumph (1495).^{*} He could not, however, retain his conquests. His friend, Sforza, fearing the domination of the French in Italy, leagued with Venice, and the King of Arragon, for their expulsion. Warned by his envoy at Venice, Charles hastened to return, and after garrisoning the chief towns, took his departure from Naples, leaving Gilbert de Bourbon as governor. After some defeats, and with much difficulty, and a treaty being concluded with Sforza, Charles reached France in safety. In 1498, the French, who had been left in possession of the newly acquired kingdom, were driven out, and Ferdinand was again restored. At the early age of twenty-seven, Charles died of apoplexy, and with him ended the elder branch of the house of Valois.

During this period, the fourth of the middle ages, the French nobility were divided into the greater and the less, the greater possessing all but independent sovereignty, and hence scarcely belonging to the aristocratic order. They held extensive territories and apanages, and within their respective domains exercised independent authority; they opposed their liege lord, the king, as an equal, with armed forces, and, retreating to their fortified castles, defied the armies of the sovereign. In process of time, the greater nobility of France perished, either in war, or by treachery, from natural causes, or by the hand of the executioner; hence their domains were seized, or reverted to the crown, as lapsed fiefs. To the possessions of these extensive domains the princes of the blood succeeded; hence a distinct order of princely or higher nobility arose, whose interests were not at all identical with the lower. The royal authority now became more settled, and the nobility no longer strove to confine it, but rather to extend it, and to share in its administration. This gave rise to jealous rivalry, but not to civil wars, as formerly. The officers of the state were paid in money; offices and pensions took the place of provinces (as apanages), and the taxes imposed were shared in by the monarch and the greater nobility, while the lesser were exempted from contributing, thus, those of noble birth were attached to a despotic royalty, from motives of self interest, and opposed to the rise of democracy.

§ 48.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

A. Kings of the House of Plantagenet.

5. Edward I. (1272—1307).

During the earlier invasion of the Anglo-Saxons, the west coast of Britain, from the Land's End to the Clyde, was occupied by six different native principalities of the Cambro-British race, known afterwards by the name of Wallenses, or Welshmen. In or about the year 876, they were chiefly located in what is now called the principality of Wales, which was then divided into North and South Wales, and Powis, each division being governed by native princes. In 933, the Welsh principalities became tributary to Athelstan, the conqueror of Edwall Voel, the king of Engynnedd (South Wales). On the arrival of the Normans in the eleventh century, the southern portion of Wales was subdued, and Fitz-hammond, a relative of the Duke of Normandy, parcelled it out among his followers. At the commencement of the twelfth century, on the occasion of a terrible inundation of the Flemish coast, some hundreds of the inhabitants arrived in Britain, and intreated Henry I. to allow them settlements in the depopulated portions of it, when he assigned to them the province of Dyrfed (West Wales), since called Pembrokeshire. North Wales, or the principality of Aberfraw, or Snowdon, was comparatively independent, and had not been subjugated up to the accession of Edward I.

Edward, on his accession, made preparations for the subjugation of Wales, and demanded the recognition of his authority, as liege lord; but nothing decisive took place, till 1277, when he advanced into Snowdon, and fortified the castles of Rhuddland and Flint. Soon after, he received the submission of Llewellyn, who resigned his principality into the hands of Edward as a conquest. Anglesea, the retreat of the Welsh bards and the princes, was ransomed for 50,000*l.* sterling. Llewellyn repented of the treaty, and rebelled, but was soon treacherously taken prisoner, and assassinated. In 1283, Prince David, the brother of Llewellyn, was made prisoner, and after a mock trial at Shropshury (Shrewsbury), was drawn and quartered. After the victory, Edward, whose queen had given birth to a prince at Caernarvon, gave him to the Welsh as a chief, born in their own country, and named him Edward of Caernarvon, and at a parliament assembled at Shropshury, in 1307, conferred upon him the dignity of Prince of Wales, which title has ever since been borne by the eldest sons of the kings of England. On the conquest of Anglesea, the cruel Massacre of the

Bards took place, and hundreds of the nobility and others went over to France.

On the death of Alexander III. of Scotland, the crown had devolved upon his daughter, Margaret, who was affianced to Edward of Caernarvon (afterwards Prince of Wales), she died, however, in the fifth year of her reign, and the sixth of her age, when many competitors for the Scottish crown appeared, among whom were the Lord of Galloweida, John Baliol, and Robert Bruce, the lord of Annandale. This led to a civil and foreign war of twenty years' duration, in which the English bore a prominent part. Edward interfered, as uncle of the deceased Margaret, who had been espoused to the Prince of Wales, and as feudal sovereign of Scotland (to which, however, he had no clear title), and decided in favour of Baliol, who swore fealty to Edward, as liege lord, and was crowned at Scone (1292). The Scottish king, despised by his subjects for his submission, threw off his allegiance, and formed an alliance with France to resist the arms of Edward, who was, however, successful at Berwick and Dunbar, when Baliol was led from the castle in which the nobility had confined him, and brought before the English monarch, at the castle of Brechin, where he was deposed, and the Earl of Surrey appointed Guardian of Scotland. In 1297, the illustrious Wallace appeared, as the deliverer of his country, but was at length betrayed into the hands of Edward, by whom he was tried, at West Mynster, as a traitor to the King of England, and being found guilty, was drawn and quartered (1298). On his death, another patriotic hero, roused by the sense of national wrongs, appeared in the person of the Earl of Carrick (Robert the Bruce). He was crowned at Scone, 1306, but in consequence of ill success, was compelled to lurk as an outlaw in the Islands of the Hebrides, while Edward visited with the sternest cruelty his friends and associates. In 1307, Bruce returned to his dominions, and vanquished the English in several engagements. After the battle of Loudon Hill, where the Earl of Pembroke was defeated, Edward advanced towards the Scottish borders, but died at Burgh on the Sands, 1307.

6. Edward II. (1307—1327), an imbecile prince, succeeded his ambitious father, and after having lost Galloway, and many fortresses, withdrew his troops from Scotland, to yield

himself up to his pleasures and favourites, the chief of whom was Gaveston, appointed Warden of England during the absence of the king in France, where he married the beautiful daughter of Philip IV. (Isabella). At length, the insolence of Gaveston, who had been raised to the dignity of Earl of Cornwall, and married to the king's niece, led to the formation of a league against him, composed of the greater barons, who, when assembled in Parliament, demanded a reformation of abuses from the infatuated monarch, and the banishment of Gaveston, which Edward was compelled to concede. Gaveston soon after venturing to return, was taken prisoner by the barons, who executed him, at Blacklow Hill, near Warwick. In 1314, on a treaty of peace being concluded with the barons, Edward invaded Scotland, which had been placed in the hands of the Earl of Richmond, who had driven Bruce into the northern parts of the kingdom; but before the invasion of Edward II., Bruce had been acknowledged by nearly the whole of Scotland, and appeared at the head of a large army, to defend the freedom of his country. The two kings met at Bannockburn, near Stirling, where Edward, neglecting the sage advice of Umfraville, commenced the attack, and was defeated with dreadful slaughter; 30,000 men were left dead upon the field, exclusive of upwards of 250 of noble blood. Edward was reluctantly compelled to fly, and after many hair-breadth escapes, arrived in a skiff at Berwick, almost alone. About the same period, Edward Bruce, brother of the Scottish king, made a descent upon Ireland, and after vanquishing the Anglo-Irish armies, possessed himself of the throne, but was at length slain by the English champion, John Maupas, and the Scots were driven out of the island (1317). The war between Scotland and England was now feebly carried on, and consisted chiefly in aggressions upon the frontier provinces of either kingdom. On the loss of Berwick, Edward determined upon another expedition; he besieged the town, and after being frequently repulsed, was compelled to raise the siege (1319). He now advanced into Yorkshire, which was overrun by the Scots, as likewise were Cumberland and Westmorland. At last a treaty was entered into for two years, which paved the way for a peace, when Robert was acknowledged King of the Scots, without subjection or service.

In 1321, de Spencer, who had succeeded Gaveston, excited the indignation of the barons, which was further heightened

by the queen, who felt insulted by the overruling power of the favourite, who was banished. The barons appealed to arms, and under their leaders, the Earl of Lancaster, and Roger Mortimer, the chief of the Welsh marches, was signally defeated at Boroughbridge, when Lancaster, and numbers of the nobility, were taken prisoners, and beheaded at Pomfret Castle, in revenge for the execution of Gaveston. Mortimer and others were imprisoned, while several knights were hanged, drawn, and quartered. Roger Mortimer, and several of the English nobility, contrived to break from their confinement, and escape to France, where they joined the malcontents. On the occasion of a rupture with that country, the king was persuaded by his ministers to send the queen to negotiate the terms of a peace, which subsequently led to the renunciation of the French dominions in favour of the Prince of Wales, who was to do homage for them. Isabella, having affianced her son to the daughter of the Count of Hainault, with Mortimer, and several of the banished English nobility, arrived on the English coast, at Orwell, where she was joined by the more powerful barons, who, disgusted with the conduct of the king and his favourite, de Spencer, at length deserted him. The king, with his minions, de Spencer and Baldock, with their followers, at length fled to Bristol, which the queen's army, now joined by the king's brother, the Earl of Kent, reduced, when the elder Spencer, then ninety years of age, and governor of that city, was hanged within sight of the king and the younger Spencer, who refuged in the castle. Edward, attended only by his two favourites, contrived to escape to Glamorganshire, when the prelates and barons in the queen's interest met at Bristol, and chose Edward of Aquitaine governor of the kingdom, on his father's behalf. At the beginning of the year 1327, Edward II., who had reached Kenilworth, was deposed by the parliament, which also resolved that his son should be crowned in his stead. The king was finally imprisoned in Berkeley Castle, where he was murdered by his keepers, and afterwards buried in Gloucester Abbey.

7. EDWARD III. (1327—1377), was only fourteen on his accession: hence the queen and Mortimer ruled in his name; but the latter, by an assumption of regal honour, offended the barons, while the licentiousness of the queen excited disgust in the minds of her subjects. The Earl of Kent, one of the members of the regency, was tried and executed; but the

daring and cruel deed was visited upon Mortimer (now Earl of March), who was seized by night, in the castle of Nottingham, brought to London, and, after being tried by the parliament, was executed. The queen was deprived of her lands, and, for the last twenty-seven years of her life, was compelled to live in a state of limited confinement at Risings. Edward now prepared for an attack upon Scotland, but the Scottish army having decamped, the English returned to Durham. In 1328, a peace was concluded at Edinburgh, when all claims of dominion and supremacy over Scotland were given up. On the death of Robert Bruce, Lord Randolph was appointed regent, on behalf of the youthful David, who was crowned at Scone, 1331. On an insurrection of the disinherited nobility of Scotland, to recover their lands, the new regent (the Earl of March) was defeated, and John Baliol, one of the most powerful, usurped the Scottish throne, and, to secure its possession, met Edward, who was on his advance into the north, and renewed, in all its forms, the subjugation of the kingdom. Berwick Castle was ceded to the English, and landed possessions to the yearly amount of two thousand pounds. Baliol was soon dethroned, and compelled to flee into England, when Edward made preparations to assist his vassal. The battle of Halidon Hill, decided in favour of the English, placed Baliol on the throne, and Berwickshire, Roxburghshire, Selkirkshire, Peeblesshire, and Dumfriesshire, with Lothian, were ceded to the English monarch (1334). The Scottish nobility again drove Edward's vassal from the throne. The king twice invaded Scotland before the rightful sovereign, David Bruce, arrived, and assumed the reins of government (1341).

For the wars in France, consequent upon the claims of Edward III. to the French crown, see page 247.

The Scots, taking advantage of Edward's absence in France, attacked the frontiers, and violated the truces which had been entered into, but suffered a dreadful defeat at Neville's Cross, their king, David Bruce, being taken prisoner, with many of the chief nobility. Scotland was now ruled in the north by a regency, or steward, appointed by the nobility who had escaped from the battle of Neville's Cross, while the country south of the Forth was in the hands of the lieutenant of the marches. Assisted by France, the Scottish nobles made another effort to shake off the yoke of the English monarch, and defeated his

generals at Nesbit, and then attacked Berwick, the castle of which they failed to reduce. Edward, on his return from France, determined to put a final end to the invading of the Scots, and advanced with his victorious army to Berwick, when the enemy vacated the town, and retreated into their glens, dingles, and forests. Edward pursued, but found no provisions for his army, and was compelled to retreat, while the Scots, issuing from their recesses, harassed the English, and cut off vast numbers of them. Negotiations were now entered into; David was to be restored on the payment of 100,000 marks, and hostages for the observance of the treaty to be delivered into the hands of the English. In 1369, a truce was entered into for fourteen years, and in 1370, the Scottish monarch died, when Robert II. succeeded to the crown. Edward died at Canterbury, 1376.

During the long reign of Edward, no less than seventy parliaments were assembled, and the assembly or parliament of the nation, was divided into the upper and lower houses; the first consisting of barons and prelates, the latter of inferior barons and burgesses, or representatives of cities.

8. Richard II. (1377—1399), of Bordeaux, the son of the Black Prince, succeeded, amidst the acclamations of his subjects. A regency, consisting of nine counsellors, was appointed, among whom was the Earl of Lancaster, John of Gaunt. In the year 1381, the revolt of the lower classes took place, who began to emancipate themselves from that oppression under which they had for so long a period laboured. Accident occasioned the outbreak. A collector of the Poll Tax having acted insultingly towards the daughter of Wat Tyler, a tiler of Dartmouth, the father of the maiden struck the collector to the earth. The men of Kent were aroused, and declared that there should be no slaves; and soon after the men of the eastern counties followed their example. Sixty thousand of the rebels met on Blackheath, and proceeded to attack London, of which they possessed themselves, and put the chancellor and the primate to death. Soon after, an interview took place in Smithfield, between Wat Tyler, the leader of the rebels, and the youthful king, attended by his counsellors and the lord mayor. The latter, judging from the conduct of the rebel chief that the king's life was endangered, plunged a poignard into the throat of Tyler, whose death was completed by one of the king's esquires, as he fell from

his horse. The leader being slain, the revolt was soon crushed, but not until after 1,500 were hanged, and many others imprisoned. The king, although now in full age to exercise the prerogatives of the crown, yet intrusted the government to his two favourites, De Vere and De la Pole, the latter of whom, having been created Duke of Suffolk, was, through the influence of the Duke of Gloucester, tried before the commons, nor could the king wholly save him: his life was preserved, but he was severely fined. Gloucester was now placed at the head of affairs, when Richard, finding that the court of the regent was frequented rather than his own, procured from the judges, and his favourites, an opinion that the government of Gloucester was illegal. The latter at once took up arms, and many of his adherents were executed, while others took to flight or were banished. The king now threw off his fetters, and notified, by a public proclamation, that he had taken the whole government of the kingdom into his own hands. Soon after, he visited his Irish dominions, and, to secure peace with France, espoused the Princess Isabella. On his return, he began to wreak his vengeance on the nobles, who had so long ruled with a high hand, both over the nation and himself. Gloucester, Warwick, and Arundel were tried for treason, when the former was banished, and the two latter imprisoned in the Tower. On the meeting of parliament (1398), the acts of Gloucester were annulled, and the opinions of the judges confirmed, while the favourite De la Pole was recalled. Richard now ruled more tyrannically, and that alienated his subjects from his government. On his expedition to Ireland, remarkable for the splendour of the king's retinue, Henry, duke of Lancaster, urged by the discontented barons, left Paris for England, and raised the standard of rebellion. In a few days he was joined by 60,000 men, and on marching to London, compelled the regent (Duke of York) to abandon the capital. Bristol, the refuge of the partisans of Richard, surrendered, and lords Scroop, Bussy, and Green were tried and executed. Richard arrived soon after from Ireland, and took refuge in Conway Castle, from which place, under a solemn assurance of safety, he was induced to withdraw, and was seized as a prisoner by Northumberland, and conveyed into the presence of Henry, by whom he was committed to Chester Castle, and from thence to the Tower. In 1399, his abdication, ratified by the lords and commons, took place, and

Henry, duke of Lancaster, was acknowledged king, amidst the applause of the multitude.

In 1382 commenced the persecution of Wycliffe, one of the most famous doctors of the English church, who was arraigned before a national synod, under Archbishop Courtenay, and his works condemned. The doctrines propounded by this early English reformer correspond, in most instances, with those of the Church of England in the present day.* In consequence of the persecution raised against him, and the publicity thus given to his doctrines, nearly one half of England embraced the so called heretical opinions, and were termed, by way of reproach, Lollards (Wycliffites). In 1396, the members of the University of Oxford became so tinged with the doctrines of Wycliffe, that it was subjected to visitation, on which occasion many of the conclusions of the reformer were condemned; yet, in 1406, the university seal was affixed to testimonials of good character and propriety of behaviour on his behalf. Subsequently, however, the followers of Wycliffe were persecuted, and many of them sealed the truth with their blood. The first martyr was William Sawtrey, of London, clergyman, brought to the stake by Archbishop Arundel, because he refused to worship the cross, and denied the doctrine of transubstantiation. Wycliffe died in his parish of Lutterworth, being struck with palsy while performing divine service in the church.

B. Three Kings of the House of Lancaster

(*a collateral line of the House of Plantagenet*),
1399—1461.

HENRY IV. (1399—1413), of capacity and vigour, was the idol of the populace, and the chief of the baronial party; an unresisted army was at his command, and the parliament was ready to obey his mandates. The house of York therefore was not in a condition to contest the crown with him. Richard, the late king, was still a prisoner; but on the unsuccessful rebellion of the barons in his favour, to release him, and then to restore him to his titles, he was starved to death (?), while many of his followers were beheaded. The truce with Scotland being ended, the Scots began again to make inroads into the border counties. Henry marched against them, and advanced to Edinburgh. The Scots retired, and Henry, after besieging the city, was compelled to return to England. In 1403, the Welsh northern chiefs rose in rebellion, assisted by the Percies of Scotland. Earl Douglas, with a Scotch army, met the king at Shrewsbury, when they were defeated with great slaughter. Percy, with 200 knights, and 5,000 men, being left dead on the field. Soon

* Short's "History of the Church of England," page 62.

after, another rising took place, under the valiant chieftain Owen Glendower. This was settled by an amnesty, and Henry of Monmouth, the king's son, was made lord-lieutenant of Wales, when he marched against Owen's son, and gained the victory of Grosmont. This, for a while, crippled the Welch, but war was, however, maintained at intervals down to 1418. In 1402, the Scottish irruptions were again commenced, but Sir Henry Percy (Hotspur), and his father, the Earl of Northumberland, defeated the Scots at Halidon Hill, with great slaughter, when Sir Henry Percy was created earl of Douglas by the king, who evinced great pleasure at the success of his vassal's arms. Henry, who had long been subject to epilepsy, died at Westminster, 1413, in the fourteenth year of his reign, and the forty-seventh of his age, leaving his crown to his brave son.

HENRY V. (1413—1422), who, on his accession, restored the Percies to their possessions in Scotland, and released his cousin, the Earl of March, from his imprisonment. (For the wars in France, see page 253.) On the absence of Henry in France, the Scots took the opportunity of again invading the borders, but were defeated by the dukes of Exeter and Bedford, who compelled them to raise the sieges of Roxburgh and Berwick. Henry, the victor of Agincourt, died in France, at Vincennes, 1422, leaving the Duke of Bedford, regent of France, and the Duke of Gloucester, protector of England, during the minority of

HENRY VI. (1422—1461), who was proclaimed King of France as well as of England. After the death of the regent Bedford (1435), the French possessions were, with the exception of Maine and Anjou, Calais and the Channel Islands, entirely lost. On the marriage of Henry with the imperious Margaret, Maine and Anjou were bestowed upon René, the bride's father, and titular king of Sicily and Jerusalem. On the union of the Duke of Burgundy with the French king, the war against the English was prosecuted with renewed vigour. In 1449 Rouen capitulated; Cherbourg in 1450; and on the surrender of Bordeaux, in 1453, Calais and the Channel Islands alone remained to the English. The giving away of the French provinces of Maine and Anjou, and the loss of Rouen and Bordeaux, etc., excited general discontent, while the factions of Beaufort and Gloucester agitated the country from one end of it to another. On the elevation of Margaret by her marriage with Henry, at

the instigation of the Beaufort faction, the Gloucester party soon experienced the weight of her vindictive power: the Duke was arraigned before the parliament (1447), and soon after murdered in prison (?). The head of the Lancastrian party being now removed, the downfall of that house soon followed. On the death of her favourite minister, the Duke of Suffolk, a rebellion broke out in Kent, headed by John Cade. The court was compelled to remove to Kenilworth, but the citizens of the metropolis armed, and vanquished the rebels, many of whose chiefs they hanged, while a great number of their deluded followers was slaughtered. On the death of Humphrey of Gloucester, Richard stood next in succession to the throne, and had a title to it even superior to that of the reigning monarch (see genealogical table): and on the birth of a prince, 1453 (the illfated Prince Edward), the Yorkists, during the imbecility of the king, endeavoured to place Richard at the head of the administration, and impeached the queen's favourite, Somerset, whom they committed to the Tower, and nominated Richard of Gloucester protector of the kingdom. On the partial restoration of the king, the queen assumed the government in his name, and released Suffolk, when the opposition between the reigning house of Lancaster, and the Yorkists, broke out into an open warfare (the Wars of the Roses), which desolated the kingdom for upwards of thirty years, during which twelve pitched battles were fought, many of the princes of the blood perished, and one half of the nobility of the kingdom, with nearly all the principal gentry, fell in the unhappy contest. The first battle was that of St. Albans, when Somerset was slain, and the king taken prisoner. The latter was, however, treated kindly and with courtesy by Richard, who was now a second time proclaimed protector. The intrigues of the queen, however, deprived Richard once more of his protectorate, and he retired from court. On occasion of hostile demonstrations on the part of the Lancastrians, fostered by the queen, the Yorkists again took up arms, and defeated the Royalists at Blore Heath (1459). At the battle of Northampton, the queen and prince were compelled to flee for their lives, while the imbecile and inoffensive monarch again fell into the hands of the Yorkists, who still treated him with great kindness. In the parliament held at York, 1461, Richard made a formal demand of the crown, founded on his descent from Lionel, duke of Clarence,

third son of Edward III. Counsel were heard by the lords, who decided that Richard should hold the protectorate, and that on the death of Henry the crown should devolve to the house of York, its right being certain and indefeasible. The queen could not endure the disinheriting of her son, and hence the Lancastrians made another effort in support of their party. The opposing armies met at Wakefield, when the Duke of York fell in the engagement, and his son, a boy of twelve years of age, was cruelly butchered by the Lord Clifford. Edward, earl of March, learning the fate of his father and brother, soon mustered his troops, and advanced to meet the Lancastrians at Mortimer's Cross, near Hereford, where he defeated them with great slaughter, and cruelly put to death many of his noble prisoners, in revenge for the death of his father. At St. Albans, the queen was, however, once more triumphant; Warwick was defeated, and the king released from his custody. Warwick, having joined Edward, the queen's party was compelled to retire before them. Edward entered London with acclamations, and was soon after proclaimed king, by the title of Edward IV.

C. Three Kings of the House of York, 1461-1485.

1. Edward IV. (1461—1483), the rose of Rouen, had still to contend with the Lancastrians, who, with their army of 60,000 men, were concentrated at York, to maintain their cause. The opposing forces met at Towton, when 20,000 of the Lancaster forces were left dead on the field of battle, after which Edward entered York in triumph. Margaret, the queen, now sought assistance from France, and landed in Northumberland, where she was opposed by Warwick, and compelled again to seek safety in flight. On the breaking out of differences between Warwick and the king, the former, being obliged, as an outlaw, to retire to France, espoused the cause of Margaret, and the Prince Edward, her son, whom he engaged to seat on the throne of England, in the place of their mutual enemy, Edward IV. Warwick landed at Plymouth, when the partisans of his house flocked to his standard in such numbers, that the king, seeing resistance to be hopeless, embarked for Holland. Warwick, however, instead of seating Prince Edward on the throne, caused the imprisoned king, Henry VI., to be brought from the Tower, and placed him upon the throne. Edward, who had not been inactive in

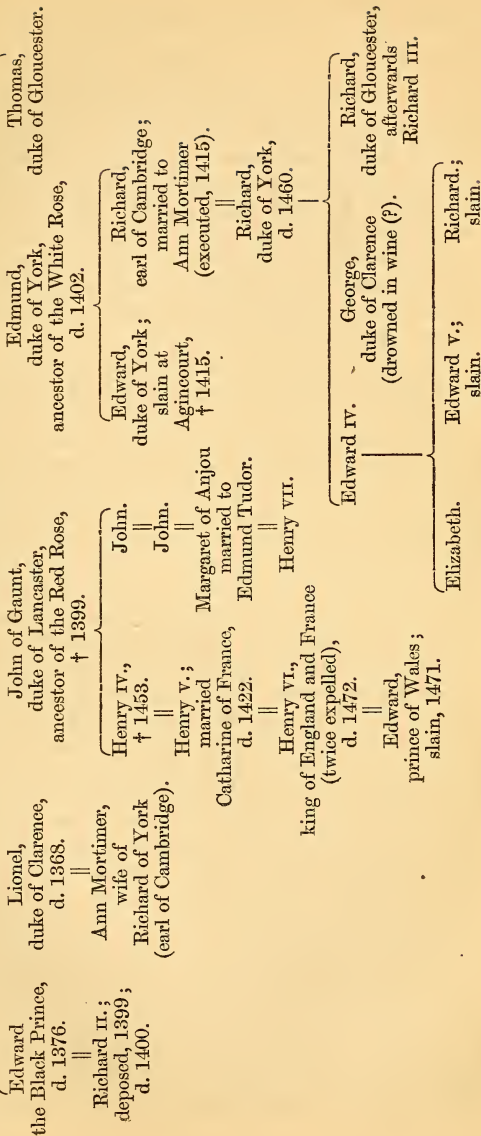
his exile, on obtaining the support of his brother, Charles, duke of Burgundy, resolved to prosecute his claims to the English throne, and for that purpose effected a landing at Ravenspur, 1471. Multitudes flocked to his banners, and after a short time, he proceeded triumphantly towards the south, where he engaged the forces of Warwick at Barnet, and utterly defeated them. Warwick fell in the engagement. Edward again gave battle to the Lancastrians (now joined by Margaret and her son) at Tewkesbury, when he was again victorious, the queen and her son falling into his hands as prisoners. The young Prince Henry was barbarously murdered, and the queen was committed to prison, until her ransom by the French monarch, when she returned to France, and died in seclusion. Henry VI. was found dead in the Tower (probably by the dagger of Richard of Gloucester). The noble house of Lancaster was now extinct, with the exception of Henry Tudor, who fled to Bretagne (Brittany). The remaining years of Edward's reign was a calm: he caused his infant son to be created prince of Wales, and declared his successor, and, in 1483, closed his anxious career.

2. Edward v. (1483) reigned only nominally for the short space of eleven weeks, when he was set aside by his ambitious guardian and uncle, Richard, duke of Gloucester, who, having imprisoned his nephews in the Tower, ascended the throne.

3. Richard III. (1483—1485), in order to the security of his throne, commanded the murder of his two nephews. A conspiracy was organized in their favour, when their death, hitherto kept a profound secret, was made known, without any allusion to the circumstances under which it took place. This served to strengthen the conspiracy. At length, the Lancastrians, under Henry Tudor, who had arrived from France, coalesced with the discontented Yorkists, and prepared to dethrone the cruel and ambitious Richard, whom they engaged at Bosworth Field, where he fell, covered with wounds. The Plantagenet line now ended, and that of the Tudors commenced, with Henry VII., who, by his marriage with the Princess Elizabeth, united the two houses of Lancaster and York. The conflict between the two houses did not, however, wholly terminate, but continued for a long time after the struggle for the succession had ended, in consequence of the conduct of the king, who wished to avoid the appearance of being indebted to the Yorkist party for his accession to the throne.

THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

Edward III., † 1377.



§ 49.

THE PYRENÆAN PENINSULA..

The only possession of the Arabs in Spain, in 1237, was the little kingdom of Granada, which was generally dependent upon that of Castile, but enjoyed, in consequence of its excellent internal government, a considerable portion of agricultural, commercial, and political prosperity, until 1492, when, in consequence of a disputed succession, it was, on the surrender of Granada, united to Castile. Ferdinand and Isabella, who made a triumphal entry into the city, constituted it an archiepiscopal see.

Only two Christian kingdoms now remained in the peninsula, besides that of Castile and Arragon—Portugal and Navarre, and the latter was in the last stage of exhaustion and debility. Arragon had lost the greater portion of its French territories, but, on the expulsion of the French from Sicily, during the Sicilian Vespers, obtained that kingdom as a fief from the pope, 1282, to which also the Arragonese monarch had a legal claim, by his marriage with the daughter of Manfred, son of the Hohenstaufen emperor of Germany, Frederick II. James II. added Sardinia and Corsica; and in 1375, the Balearic Isles were finally annexed to the kingdom. Naples, through the interest of the Duke of Milan, and the valour of Alphonso, was, for a while, connected with Arragon; but on the death of that monarch, it was bequeathed to his son Ferdinand (1469). John II., the brother of Alphonso, succeeded to the crown of Arragon and Navarre, and declared his son Frederick, king of Sicily. By the marriage of the latter with Isabella, the heiress of Castile, the two crowns of Arragon and Castile (on the death of John II., of Arragon, and the termination of disputes in Castile) became united (1479). From this period, the kingdoms of Castile, Arragon, and Navarre (south of the Alps), may be regarded as merged into the common appellation of Spain. Each kingdom, however, was separately governed during the lives of Ferdinand and Isabella, while their respective constitutions also remained unchanged. In 1492, the city of Granada, the last stronghold of the Arabs, surrendered, when the kingdom of Granada, after a sanguinary conflict of ten years' duration, fell beneath the arms of the Spaniards, and Ferdinand adopted the title of King of the Spains.

Navarre, until 1305, was annexed to France, and on the death of Louis x. (1316), should have passed to his daughter Johanna. It was retained, however, by the French kings (her guardians and uncles) until the accession of Philip of Valois, 1328, when Johanna was acknowledged queen, and married the Count of Champagne, who added Angoulesme, and some other territories, to its dominions. In the reign of King John of France, the French possessions of the kingdom of Navarre were seized, and never again restored; the small duchy of Nemours was the only indemnity that could be obtained. At length the kingdom passed by marriage into the houses of Foix and Albret; but during the reign of the great Ferdinand of Arragon, the greatest part fell into his hands by conquest, the only portion left to the king of Navarre being on the French side of the Alps.

In Portugal, the legitimate line of kings, descendants of Henry of Burgundy, had failed in Don Ferdinand (1383). On the death of that monarch, Don John, the illegitimate brother of Ferdinand, and the Master of the Knights of Avis, invited the king of Castile to take possession of the throne, and to confer upon him the regency. This not being acceded to, and, knowing the aversion of the Portuguese to the Castilian sway, he seized the regency for himself; but in this he was opposed by the queen of Ferdinand, who had been left regent, and the king of Castile. After several conflicts, the claimants, wearied with their dissensions, submitted to an election by the Cortez, when the Master of Avis was elected and proclaimed king, by the title of J o h n I. The king of Castile would not, however, abide by the election, and again took up arms. John gained a complete victory, and, on the arrival of the Duke of Lancaster, John of Gaunt, with an English army, Portugal was cleared of its enemies. John next endeavoured to recover Mauritania, but only succeeded in taking Ceuta, which he kept in spite of the repeated attacks of the Moors. He died 1433.

Among the many sons of King John, was Henry, the grand master of the Order of Knights of Christ, who had accompanied his father in the African wars against the infidels, and resolved to turn his attention towards the more remote heathen. He made himself conversant with the sciences of geography, astronomy, and mathematics, and drew around him, at Sagres, all the learned men, travellers, and mariners within his reach. Having satisfied himself with the possibility of sailing round Africa, and thus reaching the Eastern Indies, he built and collected vessels in the harbour of Sagres, and sent them forth on

voyages of discovery. Cape Non had never been passed, and for many years, King John and his son had to struggle against the murmurs of the people, who exclaimed against the waste of men and money occasioned by the Infanté's mania for discovery. In 1418, however, Madeira was discovered by the mariners of Henry's ships; and almost about the same time, the Canaries were made known, through an English vessel which had been driven from her course. The discovery of the Azores and the Cape de Verde Islands followed; and on the discovery of Guinea, the murmurs of the Portuguese ceased. The gold proved abundant, while the traffic in captured slaves proved a source of great wealth to all who engaged in it, the professed object of which, however, was to save their souls, by their conversion to Christianity. The Infanté lived to see the African coast, as far as Sierra Leone, explored, and the Azores and the Cape de Verde Islands, which were bestowed upon the crown of Portugal by the Pope, colonized.

In 1486, the kings of Portugal assumed the title of Lord of Guinea, and in the same year, the southernmost extremity of Africa was rounded by Bartholomew Diaz, when the name of Cabo Tormentosa, or Stormy Cape, was given to it.

B. The East.

§ 50.

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE UNDER THE PALÆOLOGI, 1261—1458.

The emperors of the house of Palæologus, whose ancestor, Michael, had obtained possession of Constantinople in 1201, continued to reunite the fragments of the Byzantine empire, with the exception of the principalities and duchies which had been founded by the Venetians and Genoese, etc. But the princes of this house were feeble, and under the control of the patriarchs and monks, who aggravated the disorders of the state by their continued theological disputes, while the rancour and fury of the various schismatics and sectaries promoted internal dissensions. Civil wars and court intrigues combined with these, hastened the final destruction of the empire, and prevented any effectual opposition to the advance of the Osman Turks.

The Byzantine emperors, during their conflicts with the Osmans, made frequent appeals to the European princes for assistance, but in vain. The monarchs of Christendom looked tamely on; but had they formed one common league against the Turks, the probability is, that Europe would have been saved from their devastation. The nations, however, were composed of such opposite races, and many of these, too, were as yet but so little removed from barbarism, that a union for common defence was impossible. Added to this,

there was also a general lack of powerful and firm administration in the various kingdoms and provinces, and no energy had been displayed in putting them in a state of defence: hence they were open to the attacks of the invaders, who, in a very short time, settled down in security on some of the fairest portions of the European continent. The Byzantine emperor contented himself with the defence of the imperial city, and its environs, and left the provinces to defend themselves; so that they were soon lost to the empire, and the Turks placed in a position to gain possession of the capital itself.

To obtain support from the West, even the union of the Greek with the Latin church was proposed; this, however, proved ineffectual; but the invasion of the Mongols for a time saved the empire. Timur Lenk poured down upon the Turks with his countless hordes, and diverted their attention from the enterprize. The delay was, however, short. Mohammed II., in 1453, invested Constantinople with an army of 300,000 combatants, supported by a fleet of 300 sail; and on the 29th of May, after a vigorous siege of fifty-three days, the city surrendered, and the Christians were finally overthrown, and carried into slavery. The Peloponnesus was now speedily overrun; and the empire of Trebizond, and all the minor Greek states in the Archipelago, with the Morea, Epirus, and Attica fell into the hands of Mohammed. Cyprus alone remained, and became a dependency of the Venetian republic.

§ 51.

THE OSMANS.

On the invasion of the Seldjukian kingdom by the Gaznavidian Tartars, the princes of Aladin revolted, when that sultan sought refuge in the Greek empire, where he was put to death by the orders of Michael Palæologus (1303). On his death, Osman, or Othman, by threats, and by large bribes, prevailed upon the other princes to elect him as sultan, when he assumed the title of Emperor of the Osmans, and fixed his residence first at Carachissar, then at Jenghisberi. At first, his dominions embraced only parts of Galatia and Bithynia, but they were soon after extended, until at length they comprehended the greater portion of Asia Minor and Thracia. In 1326, the city of Brusa was taken by his son Orchan, and, in the following year, the province of Semendra, and the capital, Hereki. During his reign the army received a regular pay, but as the troops frequently mutinied, the for-

mation of the corps of Janizaries (new soldiers) took place, composed of Christian youths instructed in the Mohammedan faith. Towards the middle of the fourteenth century (1337), the lasting conquests of the Turks in Europe commenced. The whole of Bithynia, and much of Phrygia, on the defeat of the Chandars (a Tartar race in Kermia), being subdued, Orchan sent his son Soliman to attempt a passage into Europe, probably that he might effect the destruction of the Byzantine empire. Soliman, and eighty chosen followers, passed over the Propontis on a raft, supported by ox-bladders, and having, by threats and promises, obtained shipping, fetched over from the Asiatic shores 3,000 Osmans (1338). With these he subsequently took the key of Constantinople (the city of Gallipolis). In the following year (1360), Épibatou and Chorlu on the Propontis were taken, and before the conclusion of the fourteenth century, Macedonia, Thracia, and the empire of the Servians, as well as Bulgaria and Wallachia, were compelled to acknowledge the Turkish supremacy. Elated with their successes, they proceeded to extend their conquests over Southern Hungary, and, probably, Styria; they vanquished the forces of Europe, under the command of the King of Hungary, at Nicopolis, and would have ravaged the whole of Western Europe, but they were stopped in their victorious career by the losses which they sustained in the East, where the great conqueror of the eastern world, Timur Lenk (Tamerlane), met them on the plains of Angora, in the Minor Asia, and slaughtered upwards of 100,000 of their troops, and took their sultan, Bayazeed (Bajazet), prisoner* (1402). The receipt of unfavourable news from Persia compelled the return of Timur to his Asiatic provinces; and the Turks, freed from the presence of their conqueror, not only survived the shock, but soon re-established themselves in all their former greatness. For upwards of fifty years the Osman Turks were engaged in conflicts with the Greeks, the Albanians, and the Hungarians, as well as with the Venetians and Genoese. In the year 1453, the capital of the Byzantine empire (Constantinople) was taken, and, soon after, the little but strong kingdom of Trapezunt (Trebizond—see § 50) fell into their hands.

* The story of the conqueror being carried about in an iron cage is a fable. Timur consented to leave him the empire, and granted the investiture of it to Bayazeed and his two sons.

§ 52.

THE MONGOLS.

Timur the Tartar, or Tamerlane, was a son of one of the emirs, or princes, of the Chagata-orda (Jagatai horde), the descendants of the great Ghenghis Khan. Transoxiana was the theatre of his first exploits; there he seized upon the territories of the khans of Jagatai, and fixed his capital at Samarcand. Persia, the whole of Upper Asia, Kipzac, and Hindostan, to the source of the Ganges, were successively vanquished by him. Cruelty and bloodshed marked all his conquests, and huge towers (of which there were no less than 120 in Persia alone) formed of the heads of his vanquished enemies, were among his dearest trophies. In 1400-1, the Turks, who had seized all the possessions of the Greek empire, with the exception of the capital, compelled the emperor to allow the introduction of the Mohammedan ritual into the city, and the residence of a *cadi*, to settle disputes. On these conditions a peace was concluded. Bayazeed becoming vigorous in the execution of these demands, Palæologus appealed to Tamerlane for assistance; and about the same period, the emir of Baghdad, whose wife and two sons had been forcibly seized by Bayazeed, also complained to the Tartar sultan, and sought his help. Tamerlane undertook to rescue them from the tyrant, and commenced negotiations; but the haughty Osman, hardened and obstinate, resolved to settle the dispute by an appeal to arms. On the plains of Angora, near Prusa, the two armies met, and continued fighting the whole day: 340,000 men strewed the field of battle, of which nearly 100,000 belonged to the Osman Turks. Bayazeed was taken prisoner, and died of apoplexy, at Akshehr, eight months after the dreadful conflict. Tamerlane retired to Iconium, and shortly after died as he was on his way to China. After his decease, the empire was contested between his son and grandson, during which it became dismembered, and at length yielded to the Usbegs. The celebrated Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, however, after a glorious contest with the Usbeg khan, Shay Beg or Shybuk, retired to Ghazna, and thence to India, where he founded a great empire in Hindostan (the Mogul empire), which remains to this day in the hands of his nominal descendants.

C. The North-east of Europe.

The ancient kings of Denmark (Denmark) were known by the name of Skioldungs, descended from Skiold, a pretended son of the celebrated Odin, who, from being the conqueror, was elevated into the deity of the north. The monarchs who reigned after Sweyn II., were named Estrithides, from that sovereign, whose mother's name was Estrith, and sister to Canute the Great. Sweyn was a great warrior, and raised the standard of revolt against Magnus, king of Norway (1044), and maintained the independency of Denmark, and possession of the throne, until his death.

Sweden had been governed in succession by the dynasties of Stenkild (a Christian of West Gothland), Swerker (from Charles Swerkerson, king of the Swedes and Goths), and Eric (the first Swedish monarch who is mentioned as having been crowned). During the reigns of the princes of these dynasties the whole nation was divided into two factions, the Gothic and the Swedish, each differing in religious sentiments, and embroiling the kingdom in civil wars. In the midst of which, however, they attempted foreign conquests, and embraced many military crusades for the conversion of the heathen. In 1157, Eric conquered Finland, colonized Nyland, and partly subdued the provinces of Helsingeland and Jamptland. Charles I. (Swerkerson) united the kingdom of Gothland to Sweden, and Eric the Laspe (Lisper), in the character of a military missionary, conquered Tavastland and Eastern Bothnia. Birger, of the dynasty of the Folkungers (1250—1365), under the pretext of converting the heathen, subdued Carelia and Savolax, fortified Viborg, and built Stockholm, which he annexed to Sweden. Waldemar obtained Sudermania, with the castle of Nykœping. Magnus Ericson (1333), on assuming the reigns of government, took the title of King of Sweden, Norway, and Scania, and in 1336, issued an edict prohibiting the children of christian parents from being slaves. During his reign, Scania, Halland, and Blekinge, were confirmed to Sweden, Waldemar of Denmark agreeing to renounce his claims upon them. On the breaking out of the great plague (brought to Rugen from London), by which nearly two-thirds of the inhabitants of Norway, and a vast number in Sweden, were cut off,

Haco, the younger son of Magnus, assumed the government of Norway, while Eric was raised to the throne of Sweden, by a faction opposed to Magnus, and his favourite, Bennet Algotson. On the death of Eric, by poison, Magnus was again acknowledged king, and ceded Scania, Halland, and Blekinge, to Waldemar of Denmark, on condition that he supported him against the Swedish council, opposed to his government. The council, in 1361, invited Haco of Norway (son of Magnus), to seize his person, and to assume the sovereignty, which he did, and soon after married the Princess Margaret, the daughter and heiress of the king of Denmark. Haco, having banished twenty-four of the most powerful of the disaffected barons, they proceeded to Germany, and offered the crown of their native country to Albert, duke of Mecklenburg, and nephew to Waldemar, who, on his arrival at Stockholm, was elected king. On resorting to arms, Magnus was made prisoner. Haco soon after arrived from Norway, and pushing on to Stockholm, laid siege to the town. Albert, by conceding to the Swedish council all that they demanded, however, retained the nominal possession of the sovereignty.

Denmark and Sweden.—On the death of Waldemar of Denmark (1375), Margaret, the wife of Haco of Norway, was nominated regent in Denmark; and on the death of her husband, Haco, she became queen regnant in Norway: thus Norway and Sweden were united. About the same period, a rupture took place between the nobles of Sweden and Albert, which occasioned a civil war, in the midst of which the heirs of Boece Jonson, a powerful thane, in whose hands were the principal castles and strongholds of the kingdom, made an overture of the Swedish crown to Margaret, which she accepted. Albert's fate was decided at Falkøeping (1369), where he, with his retinue of German princes and knights, were made prisoners. Soon after, a treaty was signed; Albert and his son Eric were ransomed; and Sweden had become so depressed, that it accepted the conditions imposed upon it by Margaret. The coronation took place at Calmar, where, in 1397, the treaty of Calmar was signed, which, for the future, was to combine the three kingdoms of the north (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) under a common sceptre, each, however, to be governed by its own councils and laws. Margaret died, 1412, and was succeeded by Eric of Pomerania,

who, for thirty years, was engaged against the powerful counts of Holstein, and in fruitless endeavours to secure the succession of the kingdom to the ducal house of Pomerania. During his reign, the revolt of the peasants against the governors of the kingdom, and the nobility of Sweden, took place, under the celebrated Engelbert Engelbertson, a miner. The king met the peasants at Stockholm, and agreed to redress their grievances: but the Swedish governors, continued to oppress the people, while the king was too weak to oppose the greater barons: the kingdom was therefore in a state of revolt and civil war. In 1438, Sweden and Denmark finally renounced obedience to Eric, and offered the crown to Christopher of Bavaria, who accepted it (1439). On his death (1448), the crown of Sweden, and afterwards that of Norway, were bestowed upon Charles Canuteson, the governor of Finland, and that of Denmark, upon Christian of Oldenburg. Christian determined to press his claims upon Sweden, and took up arms to enforce them. After a severe conflict of nine years, at the close of which Canuteson and his party was defeated, Christian was crowned king at Upsala, 1457. Having raised a considerable sum of money in his new kingdom, he extended it by the purchase of the county of Holstein. In 1464, in consequence of the oppression of the king, who was constantly levying heavy taxes upon the people, a revolt took place, and Charles Canuteson was elected, but after six months was again expelled. He was, however, subsequently chosen, for the third time, and ended his career fighting against Christian in defence of his crown.

§ 53.

RUSSIA.

As early as the beginning of the sixth century, we have proof of an intercourse subsisting between Scandinavia and Southern Europe. The Varangians, or Varagians, had, from a remote period, served in the imperial body guard of the emperors of Constantinople: hence their name of *Fargani*, or *Varagi* (seafaring men or soldiers serving by agreement), synonymous with the *fœderati* of the Gothic mercenaries. The Greeks assert that they came from the remote north, from an enormous island (Thule), where the inhabitants travelled and hunted on incurvated pieces of wood (sledges), and reindeer existed in abundance, while the people were divided into many tribes or nations. On the alleged foundation of the Russian empire by the Swedish Varagian chief Ruric, they were already powerful enough to attack the eastern

empire; and the sea-kings of the Ross, or Rosch as the Greeks call them, more than once threatened Constantinople itself. In the reign of Igor, the son of Ruric, the Ross are said to have descended the Don, and drawn their boats with them (a Scandinavian custom) to the Wolga, which they descended; and after having plundered either the Greeks or the Turkish tribes on the Black Sea and Caspian, returned to their own dominions. According to Constantine, a Russian patriarch, the first princes that ruled over Kiov were three brothers of Russian extraction, who, at the close of the fifth century, built Cioba, or Kiov. Nestor, who wrote in the eleventh century, states that Varagian chiefs had come across the sea (Baltic, or sea of Varagua), and subjugated the Finns and Selaves, the latter locating on the south of the L. Tshodskoe Osero (Pripet), and made them tributary. At the expiration of two years, these tribes drove out the Varagians, and compelled them to recross the sea into their own territory in Sweden. Intestine warfare having weakened the Selaves, they invited the Varagian chiefs over again into their territories, and offered them the sovereignty of their country (862). Among the bands of warriors which arrived, were Ruric and his two brothers, Sineus and Truvor. Ruric took up his abode at Aldeiberg (Novgorod). During his reign, two princes of Kiov, Oschold and Idir, went to the court of Ruric to be instructed, and on their return found their principality overrun by the Chazars. At length the princes of Kiov became sufficiently powerful to attack the Greek empire, but being repulsed with great loss, they retreated to their capital. Ruric, hearing of their defeat, hastened from Aldeiberg (Novgorod) to Cioba (Kiov), and finding the princes too weak to offer any successful resistance, he murdered them, and took possession of their principality, over which his descendants reigned until the close of the sixteenth century (1598).

Ruric, the founder of the grand principality or dukedom of Russia, fixed his first residence at Gardarike, or Aldeiberg (Ladoga, since Novgorod). On subjecting the princes of Cioba, or Kiov, he fixed his residence at the latter, where he died (878), and was succeeded by Igor, his son, murdered by the Drevlians. Swetoslav followed, who was treacherously killed by a Petchenegian chief, who made a drinking cup of his skull. In 988, his valiant son, Vladimir, ascended the throne, when he invaded the Greek empire, and, to secure a lasting peace, consented to be baptized (at Chersona, in Taurida), and married Anne, the sister of Basil II., of Constantinople. During his reign, he subdued the district of Red Russia, to the Carpathian Mountains: south, it extended to the Dniester and the Boug, and east, to the Volga.

This prince first introduced the name of Russians among the Sclavic tribes whom he had subdued, and the ritual of the Greek church. He founded and built upwards of forty churches, besides several schools and convents; but his division of the principality into a number of

petty sovereignties so weakened the monarchy, that it became an easy prey to its enemies.

On the death of Vladimer (1015), Yaroslav took the lead among the princes, and, after vanquishing his brother, Swiatopelk, prince of Tver, made peace with the celebrated Boleslas of Poland, who espoused his cause; he then assumed the reins of government, and made himself celebrated as a legislator, issuing laws for the regulation of the courts of justice. He employed his time in translating Greek books into the Slavonian tongue, and founded several schools, and a public college at Novgorod, in which 300 students were educated at his sole expense. On the death of Yaroslav, civil wars reigned among the princes, which were augmented by the interference of the Polish sovereigns, who had intermarried with the daughters of Yaroslav; and the princes of Twer and Kiovia (Kiov)—upwards of fifty petty princes, now shared among them the vast dominions of Russia, one of whom, the Prince of Kiovia (Kiev), took the title of grand duke, and exercised rule over all the rest. In 1157, Andrew I., prince of Suzdal, fixed his residence at Vladimer, and assumed the title of grand duke, and thus a political schism, or separation of the kingdom, took place, which proved most disastrous in its consequences. The grand duchy of Kiovia (Kiov), with the principalities immediately connected with it, gradually withdrew from the rest of the empire, and finally became a prey to the Lithuanians and the Poles.

In the midst of these intestine divisions, the Bulgarians, Polowzians, and others, made inroads upon the several principalities; and these savage tribes were in turn attacked by the Mongols (see § 44), under Ghenghis Khan, whose eldest son, Toushi, having marched round the Caspian to attack the Cumans, or Polovtzi (Polowzians), on the south of the principality of Kiovia, fell in with the princes of Kiovia in alliance with the Cumans. After a terrible battle, fought on the banks of the Kalka (1223), in which six princes perished on the field, besides thousands of the soldiery, the whole of Western Russia was laid open to the enemy. The furious Mongols pushed on to Novgorod, desolating the whole country as they passed through it. The whole of Russia, with the exception of Novgorod, was now subject to the Mongols, and paid an annual tribute. In 1237, the Mongols again attacked the Polovtzi, or Cumans, and the Turkish tribes of

Kaptschak, or Kiptchak, whom they entirely subdued, and then proceeded into the northern portions of Russia, where they took Moscow and Rugen, and entirely cut to pieces the Russian army, near Kolumna. Several towns were sacked and burned, among which were Vladimer, Smolensk, and Pereiaslav. In the sack of Vladimer, the whole of the family of the grand duke, Yuri II., perished, and the prince himself was slain in the terrible battle fought near the river Sita. In subsequent years these devastations were continued by Batou, the founder of the Mogul dynasty in Kiptchak, the chief horde of which was designated the Golden Horde. Batou burned Kiof, Kaminec, and Halitch, keeping possession of their territories. At length, the renowned Alexander (Nevskoi) appeared, not as a military conqueror over the Mongols—although he had subdued the Finns, and vanquished the armies of the Swedes, as well as the knights of Livonia,—but as a wise and prudent prince, who so commended himself to the chief khan of the horde, that he raised him to the dignity of grand duke, and thus preserved the kingdom from sinking into total ruin (1245). The other princes were even subject to the performance of military service, and exposed to the punishment of death on disobeying the orders of the khan.

The Livonians, or Lithuanians (heathens of the same race as the Prussians), had been subjected to the Russians; but taking advantage of their intestine discords, they threw off the supremacy, and increased their dominions at the expense of their former masters. About the middle of the eleventh century they passed their southern boundary, the river Wilia, and built the town of Kouem (Kiernow), and seized from the Grand Duke of Kiovia and Novgorod, Brac-lau, Novgorodek (Grodno), Borgesc, Bielsk, Pinsk, Mozyr, Palotsk, Minsk, Witepsk, Orza, and Mscislav, with their several dependencies.

Ringold was the first of the Lithuanian princes who took the title of the grand duke; and his successor, Mendog, or Mindors, was the first king, the dignity of which was conferred upon him by the pope on his embracing Christianity, which he soon abandoned. Gedimer, his successor, proved an invincible warrior, and not only defended himself against the combined forces of the Russians and the Tartars, but made extensive conquests, and took possession of the city of Kiova (1320), and all its dependencies on this side of the Dnieper.

Nothing remained therefore of the former Russian empire, except the grand duchy of Vladimir, so called from the capital town, Vladimir, on the Kliazma, where the grand dukes of Eastern and Northern Russia fixed their residence, until the beginning of the fourteenth century, when they removed to Moscow. In 1320, the grand khan presented the grand duchy of Moscow to Iwan, prince of Moscow, whose grandson, Demetrius, taking advantage of the distracted state of the Golden Horde of Kiptchak, turned his arms against the Tartars. Having summoned his vassal princes to assist him, he marched towards the banks of the Don, where he engaged the Tartar khan, and vanquished his army. From this victory, Demetrius obtained the name of *Donski*. In 1396, the khans of Kiptchak having invaded the territories of Timur, that conqueror advanced from India, and, after subduing the grand khan, overrun Kiptchak, and penetrated Russia as far as Moscow, which he sacked, massacring the inhabitants without mercy. Demetrius was, however, still compelled to submit to the grand khan, and even to send his son an hostage to the camp of the horde, as a security for his future allegiance. Demetrius, and his successors, availing themselves of the intestine wars which still raged between the Mogul khans, turned their attention to the strengthening of the grand duchy of Moscow, and subdued many of the petty principalities, while they reunited others, which had, for a long period, divided among them the sovereignty of Northern Russia. Iwan (John) III., who succeeded to the grand duchy in 1462, conquered the Duke of Novgorod, and annexed his territories to the duchy, although, in consequence of its having been joined to Lithuania, and connected with the Hanseatic towns, as an ally, it had been able, hitherto, to maintain an entire independency. Siewiertz (Severia), and a portion of White Russia, next fell beneath his arms. In 1480, Iwan refused to pay the usual tribute to the grand khan, who, in consequence, invaded the Russian principality. But Iwan always vigorously repulsed his attacks, and while he himself engaged the Tartar armies in Severia, on the banks of the Ugra, he despatched a large army into the centre of the enemy's territories, which were overrun, and left desolate (1481). Iwan was not only successful against the Tartars, but also reduced the Bulgarian khan of Kasan, on the Kama, and successfully united the combined armies of the

Poles and Lithuanians. Having obtained the assistance of the Nogai Tartars, partially subject to Lithuania, he accomplished the final destruction of the Golden Horde, whose khan was taken prisoner: their settlements on the Volga were destroyed, and their territories occupied by the Nogais. The Chanate was now broken up into a few detached hordes, as those of Casan, Astrakhan, Sibir, and Crim, or Krym (Crimea). Iwan next attacked the Casan horde, still the most powerful, which he partially subjected to his authority, and even frequently nominated its khans: it was not, however, entirely subjugated until (1552).

§ 54.

POLAND.

The Poles formed a portion of the great Slavonic nation whose boundaries stretched from the Baltic to the Adriatic, and from the Elbe to the Borysthenes. Among the various tribes which occupied this vast territory, were the Leches, or the Licicavici, between the Carpathians and the Vistula; the Mazovi, on the other side of the Vistula; and the Poloni, between the Bug and the Dnieper (the tribes which inhabited the plain of Polonia—from Polan, a plain), between the Bohemian Mountains and the Vistula, finally received the name of Poles. As a people, or nation, they are of comparatively recent date, no mention being made of them in history prior to the ninth or, according to some, the tenth century. Their chronicles, however, make mention of dukes of the name of Leche, from whom it is said the country received its name of Lechia, in the sixth century. One of the descendants of Leche the Palatin, Cracus, built Cracovia (Cracow), and held his government in the city. His daughter, Wenda (from Wendes, a Slavonic tribe north-west of the Leches), who proved an Amazonian warrior, after defeating a German prince who wooed her, drowned herself in the Vistula; and thus ended the dynasty.

Poland was now governed by twelve palatins, who, by their constant jealousies, involved the country in anarchy and confusion. At length they were deposed, and Lesko I. was invested with the sovereignty. On his death, without issue, Lesko II., a man of noble virtue, but of humble origin, was elected to the throne, whose descendants occupied it until the accession of the Piasts, the fifth prince of which house (Miecislav) embraced Christianity, and enforced the observance of it throughout the whole of his territories. He founded two archbishoprics (Gnesna and Cracow), and no less than seven bishoprics—Wratislav (Cujavia), Ploesko, Culm, Lebuff, Caminetz, Posnan (Posen), and Szmorgrov (Smogra).

In 973, he was compelled, with the other princes who had espoused the cause of Henry of Bavaria, to submit to and acknowledge the supremacy of the emperor (Otho II.). At the close of the eleventh century (991), he made an expedition into the country of the Bohemians, of the same race as the Poles. Miecislav prevailed, but it gave rise to an enmity between the two nations which has never been extinguished. In 999, Miecislav expired, bequeathing the duchy to his son, Boleslav (the Lion-hearted). On the visit of Otho III. to the shrine of St. Adalbert, the duchy was elevated into a kingdom, and Boleslav was anointed by the Archbishop of Gneszna, and crowned by the emperor, whose daughter, Rixas, became the wife of Boleslav. After a severe conflict, the most inveterate enemies of Boleslav, the Bohemians, were conquered, and Ulric, the younger son of the Bohemian king, placed upon the throne, to the exclusion of the elder. This act, in connexion with his successes against the Pomeranians, whom he rendered tributary, excited the jealousy of the emperor, Henry of Bavaria, who drove Boleslav out of Bohemia, and, having dethroned Ulric, continued the war until the peace of Bautzen (1018), when the marches of Lusatia and Budissin were allowed to remain in the hands of Boleslav, as fiefs of the empire. Ulric regained the throne, as the vassal of Henry; and thus both were strengthened, and better able to resist the valour of the Polish monarch. The arms of Boleslav, who had triumphed over the Saxons, the Moravians, and the Pomeranians, were, until nearly the close of his reign, engaged against the Russians, under their great leader, Yaroslav. They were, at length, terrified by his repeated victories, and acknowledged his supremacy. In 1025, Boleslav, who may be regarded as the founder of the Polish monarchy, died, after a reign of thirty years, leaving the kingdom to his son, Miecislav II., a voluptuous and feeble prince, whose cowardice and ease the Bohemians and others, whom his father, for a time, had rendered tributary, took advantage of, and revolted. He died of madness, arising from an enfeebled mind, in 1034, leaving his country in a wretched state of discontent. Miecislav was not, however, quite indifferent to the interests of his kingdom, for, during his reign, resident judges were appointed in the several palatins, to try the causes which might arise within their several jurisdictions. On his death (1034), an Interregnum, of seven years' duration, succeeded,

during which the most powerful of the nobles contended for the regal dignity, and thousands perished in the struggles which ensued. Each governor ruled as a petty sovereign within his own jurisdiction, and maintained an exterminating war the one against the other. One of the nobles (Mazos) seized the territory lying between the Wieschel, the Narew, and the Boug (Silesia, Pomerania, and Mazovia), and raised it into a sort of principality, termed, from him, the duchy of Mazovia,—and was nearly the only state not desolated by the peasantry, who turned their arms upon the nobility, and plundered all the cities and towns to which they could gain access. The old enemy of Poland, Bohemia, seized Breslau, Posnania (Posen), and Gnezna (Gnesen), and the Russians, who rendered Eastern Poland a desert, seized as much plunder as could be carried away, while the prisoners, who in number exceeded that of their own army, were sold as slaves. Yaroslav would have annexed the Polish crown to that of Russia, but the Tartars had arrived on the confines of his own territory, and he was compelled to return to his duchy. At length the Poles, reduced almost to despair, resolved to seek the son of the late king (Miecislav), who had been conveyed out of the kingdom by the queen Rixas, on the death of her husband. He was discovered in the abbey of Clugni, and, on being released from his monastic vows by the pope, he acceded to the wishes of the nobles, and hastened to take possession of his regal rights. Casimir proved the restorer of Poland. His chief antagonist was the rebel Mazos, who had held the high office of cup-bearer to his father, Miecislav. Having made friends with the Russian duke, Yaroslav, Casimir engaged the heathen Prussians to drive Mazos out of Silesia and Pomerania. After many trifling engagements, the two armies met on the banks of the Vistula, where the rebel was defeated, and his army annihilated, 15,000 of them being left dead on the field. Pomerania was again rendered tributary, and Silesia surrendered, as also did the heathen Prussians. After reigning seventeen years, he died, to the great grief of his people, leaving the crown to his son, the great Boleslav II., who, first of all, engaged the Bohemians, on behalf of their expelled sovereign, Jaromir; and then the Hungarians, in favour of Bela, driven out of the kingdom by his brother Andrew. Against both, Boleslav was successful. He now turned his arms against the Russians, to recover the long-

lost territories of Poland. Kiof fell, and the Russian prince fled. Prezemsyl, the ancient dependency of Poland, was also restored. The seven years' absence of the monarch in Russia, where he had given the full rein to his lusts, and the cruelty which he evinced towards his subjects on his return, totally alienated them from him. At length, his brutal excesses led to his being excommunicated by the church. The murder of the prelate Stanislaus, who had dared to pronounce the sentence, followed, and Boleslas was compelled to abandon his kingdom, and flee (to Hungary?), probably taking refuge and ending his days in a convent. The throne of Poland remained unoccupied, after the flight of Boleslas and his son, for nearly a year, when the nobles, on the invasion of the kingdom by the Russians and Hungarians, elected Uladislav, the son of Casimir, to the dignity of duke, that of king remaining in abeyance for upwards of 200 years (from 1079 to 1295). The Russians regained their territories lost to Boleslas II., but Prussia and Pomerania revolting, were, after a series of sanguinary engagements, compelled to submit. The reign of Uladislav was chiefly occupied in resisting the unjust pretensions of his illegitimate son Sbigniew, assisted by the Prussians; and the Bohemians, who overrun Silesia. On his death, Boleslas III. succeeded to the duchy, when he was opposed by Sbigniew, who stirred up the Pomeranians, who, however, after the fall of Belgond, were compelled to sue for peace. The rebel prince Sbigniew, shortly after, was again defeated, and the chief towns of his duchy subdued; Mazovia alone remained to him. In 1110, he fell the victim of an assassin. Boleslas, after triumphing over the Bohemians, the Pomeranians, and the Hungarians, as likewise over the Russians of the north, in forty-seven pitched battles, before the close of his reign, suffered a sad reverse. On meeting the Russian and Hungarian army on the banks of the Dniester, the Count of Cracow withdrew from the support of the duke, who lost nearly the whole of his army, and was compelled to seek refuge by flight. In 1129, he died, having divided his duchy between his four sons, which tended to increase the dissensions of the rival princes, and to hasten the decline of the once powerful monarchy. Uladislav II., who succeeded, had Cracow and Silesia, Sierads and Pomerania; Boleslas received Mazovia and Kujavia, with Dobreczyn and Culm; Miecislav, Gnesen, Posen, and Halitz; and Henry, Lublin and Sandomiers;

Casimer, the youngest was excluded. Boleslas exacted heavy contributions from his brothers, with which he procured Russian mercenaries, to aid him in dispossessing them of their appanages, which were soon reduced. The palatine of Sandomiers, however, raised an army in favour of the princes against the duke, whom he defeated, and compelled to flee to Cracow, which being invested, Boleslas evacuated the city, and afterwards renounced his dignity, and hastened into Germany. Boleslas IV., one of the remaining princes, was now elected (1146), and to secure the support of his brothers, enlarged their dominions. But Germany opposed him. The emperor Barbarossa, espousing the cause of Uladislav, who had married a German princess, marched his army into Silesia, where the Poles so harassed the troops in the rear, and cut off their supplies, that they were glad to make peace. Silesia was, however, ceded to the dethroned Uladislav, but before he could take possession, he died, when it was divided among his three sons. Boleslas now advanced against the Prussians, who had relapsed into heathenism; but, being entangled by the movements of the enemy in a marshy country, his army was cut to pieces, and his brother Henry, with many of the nobility, slain. Sandomiers and Lublin now devolved upon Casimer, while Boleslas died of a broken heart in 1174, leaving his appanage to his son Lesko, and the throne to Miecislav III., whose avarice and cruelty so disgusted his subjects that they conspired against him, and elected his brother, Casimer II., in his place, before he could muster an army in his defence. Casimer enacted several laws for the good of his subjects, and procured from the pope the revocation of the law of Boleslas III., concerning the succession, which was now rendered hereditary in the descendants of the reigning duke, and also extended to the appanages of the other princes, which passed in succession to their heirs, and thus created five hereditary, and almost independent, governments in the kingdom. Miecislav, the expelled duke, at the head of the disaffected Pomeranians, endeavoured to regain his kingdom, and took advantage of the absence of Boleslas in Russia to seize the territory of Great Poland, and also to obtain the government of Masovia and Cujavia. Persuading the people that the grand duke had died in his expedition, he procured the supreme authority, and proceeded to exercise it, when the return of Casimer dispelled

the illusion, and broke up the rebellion. He released all the prisoners, and died soon after, justly lamented by his subjects (1194). During his reign he founded and endowed numerous churches and convents, and got up a crusade against Saladin. Of the two sons left by Casimer, Lesko was chosen, under the regency of his mother (Helen). The ex-grand duke, Miecislav, disappointed of the administration, persuaded the credulous mother to induce the prince to abdicate, and promised her the palatinate of Cujavia, and the investiture of the crown for her son, both of which, on his assumption of the dignity, he refused. Death, however, soon took from him the kingdom which he had usurped, when, to the astonishment of Lesko and his mother, Uladislas III., son of Miecislav, was elected to the vacant dignity. Lesko, however, acquiesced in the decision of the nobles, and undertook the command of the army against the Russians, over whom he obtained a signal victory, and the possession of Halitz. This served to raise him in the estimation of the people, who, admiring the valour of Lesko, restored him to the ducal dignity, when Uladislas gladly retired from an unsettled throne into privacy. Lesko was soon involved in numerous wars: with the Russians who again seized Halitz, the Prussians, who ravaged Mazovia and Cujavia, and Swantopelk, the rebel governor of Pomerania, who waylaid the grand duke with an armed band of ruffians, and assassinated him while bathing with Henry of Silesia (1227). Boleslas V. succeeded, at the early age of seven years, and a struggle for the regency commenced the reign. After two sanguinary battles, in which Conrad, the uncle of the prince, prevailed over Henry, duke of Breslau, the former assumed the guardianship. In 1229, an irruption of the heathen Prussians took place; they penetrated into the very heart of Poland, massacring the inhabitants, and destroying, with fire and sword, all the countries they traversed. To resist these idolaters, the regent, Conrad, had recourse to the Teutonic knights for assistance. The Prussians were driven out of Poland, and the fortress of Dobrzyn, with the territories of Culm, and those lying between the Vistula and the Dwentza, were ceded to the knights as a reward. Boleslas, perceiving that his uncle, the regent, aimed not only at the ducal throne, but also at his life, contrived to escape from his close confinement to Duke Henry, who levied an army against the regent, and compelled him to yield, when Henry

assumed the regency. He enjoyed his dignity, however, but for a short time: he soon after expired, and Conrad was again at the helm of affairs. The young duke, Boleslas, to strengthen himself, was united to the daughter of the King of Hungary (1246). Poland was now overrun by the formidable Mongols, who, under their great khan, Ghenghis, had devastated and subdued Russia. Towns and cities were sacked and burned; Silesia and Hungary were desolated; and all the countries of the West trembled at the approach of the enemy. They at length suddenly broke up their encampments, and retraced their steps towards the East (see pages 212—13). Boleslas, with many thousands of his terrified subjects, had fled for safety into Moravia; and before his return to Poland, the nobles had elected another duke. The regent, Conrad, indignant at being passed over, again plunged the nation in a civil war. Boleslas was recalled, and, although at first victorious, was afterwards defeated, and would have lost his throne, had not death terminated the ambitious career of the regent. Eastern Pomerania, Culm, and Cujavia were now devastated by the rebel Swantopelk, the murderer of Lesko; and Poland was again overrun by the Mongols, who exceeded, if possible, their former excesses. Boleslas retired to Hungary until their departure, and employed his arms against the Podlachians, or Jadvingi, a tribe of savage warriors on the borders of Poloniae and Mazovia, ever open to their predatory incursions. Boleslas entirely subdued them, while his general, the Count Palatine of Cracow, overthrew the Russians, and followed them into their own territories. Lesko died, 1279, and was followed by his son *Lesko* (the Black), duke of Sieradz and Cujavia, who, soon after his succession, had to contend against the rebellious prelate of Cracow, who set up a rival duke in opposition. The prelate was defeated, and sought an alliance with the heathen Lithuanians, who overran Eastern Poland before their progress could be arrested. At length they were compelled to yield, and the rebellious prelate was imprisoned. The latter, however, soon contrived to escape, and, having joined some of the jealous and discontented nobles, once more attempted to dethrone the duke. Lesko attacked and defeated one section of the rebels on the banks of the Raba, and then proceeded to relieve Cracow, which had been invested. On the approach of the duke, the rebels raised the siege and departed. Lesko was

equally successful against the Russians, who, instigated by his enemies, broke in upon the frontier provinces of the kingdom. On the third great invasion of Russia and Poland by the Mongols, however, Lesko made no efforts to resist them, but fled to Hungary, leaving his provinces to be pillaged and burned. This proceeding so exasperated his subjects, that, after the Mongols had retired into Asia, they elected another duke in his room. Lesko, on his return, died of a broken heart, 1290; and, leaving no heir to succeed him, nearly all the princes of the kingdom aspired to the vacant dignity. Boleslas, the duke of Mazovia, was first invested with it, but soon compelled to resign it to the powerful Duke of Breslau, who was dispossessed of it by the brother of Lesko, Uladislav. Henry, however, soon wrested it out of his hands, and governed until his death, when Wenceslas, the king of Bohemia, preferred his claim to the grand dukedom, grounding it upon a forged (?) will of the widow of Lesko the Black. Uladislav resisted the Bohemian king, and defeated his army. Wenceslas now obtained the assistance of the Lithuanians, who availed themselves of the internal state of the kingdom to plunder the provinces. Wenceslas, although he obtained some successes, saw that there was but little chance of finally succeeding, and therefore withdrew, to prepare for the reception of the Tartar Mongols, now, for the fourth time, invading the countries of the West. Poland was now, as a kingdom, on the eve of being blotted out from the list. The Tartars, having overrun Russia, entered the kingdom, and destroyed, with fire and sword, the country which they passed through. The King of Bohemia endeavoured to add to his territories, at the expense of the Duke of Silesia, while the heathen Prussians and Pomeranians broke in upon Cujavia and Mazovia. At this juncture of affairs, the nobles agreed to sacrifice their individual interests and ambition, and, without consulting the pope, to elect a sovereign. Accordingly, the Duke of Great Poland, and Eastern Pomerania, also heir of Cracow and Sandomiers, Prezemislav, was raised to the dignity of

1. King of Poland, the coronation being performed at Gnesna by the archbishop. The government now became settled, and peace was established with the restless Pomeranians, and Danzyk was strongly fortified. In 1296, the king was assassinated by his cousin, the Margrave of Anhalt. Ula-

dislas was now elected, but was soon deposed, on account of his oppressive and tyrannical conduct, and Wenceslas, the king of Bohemia, was proclaimed in his stead (1300), who, to strengthen himself in his new kingdom, married the daughter of Premislas. The Polish castles were garrisoned with Bohemian soldiers, and the officers of state were selected from the Bohemian nobility. Wenceslas proceeded also to strip Uladislas of his possessions, and force him into exile: the latter found shelter in the Hungarian dominions. In 1306, Uladislas returned, assisted by the Duke of Transylvania, with troops; and after gaining a few victories, the death of the Bohemian Wenceslas put him once more in the possession of the kingdom. Uladislas iv. did not, however, assume the title of King of Poland until 1320, when he was acknowledged by Great Poland, under papal sanction. From this period, the royal dignity was permanently established, and transmitted to the descendants of Uladislas. The reign of Uladislas was a series of struggles against the Teutonic knights, who drove out the Poles from Danzyk, and seized Pomerania. They were, at length, defeated by treachery, and 20,000 of them were massacred on the field of battle. They, however, retained Pomerania, and several other possessions, in spite of the king. Silesia was also left in the hands of their ally, the King of Bohemia. On the invasion of the Mongols, Lithuania had become an independent state. To unite this formidable duchy in friendship and alliance with the Polish kingdom, Uladislas obtained the hand of the pagan prince's daughter in marriage, and, with her, the redemption of upwards of 24,000 captives, who were restored to their kindred and country. Uladislas died in 1333, leaving the kingdom to his son, Casimer III. (the Great). On his succession, Cujavia and Dobrzyn were restored to Poland by the Teutonic knights, who received the territories of Culm, Michalow, and Pomerania. Casimer also gained, by conquest (1340), the country of Red Russia, besides Volhynia and Podolia, and the palatinates of Brescia, Chelm, and Belz, from the Grand Duke of Lithuania (1349).

Casimer was pre-eminently a man of peace, and exerted himself to lessen the evils under which his kingdom groaned. He rid the country of the predatory bands which plundered the merchants and the peasantry with impunity, and framed a body of laws, of universal application, which was comprised in two treatises; the one for the Greater, the

other for the Lesser Poland. In these laws, the property of the peasant, no less than that of the noble, was secured to him. The serfs and peasants were protected; the masters no longer held the power of life and death; both were amenable to the same tribunals. Casimer was also the great patron of the industrial arts, and encouraged the immigration of artizans from all parts of Germany, who introduced into Poland the useful arts of life, and the business of commerce. Towns were fortified by him; edifices of wood were replaced by those of stone and brick; schools, hospitals, churches, and convents were built by him without number. A Teutonic tribunal, or supreme court of justice, was established at Cracow, whose jurisdiction extended over other cities and towns; and to encourage the teaching of the higher branches of learning, a university was also erected in the city. In consequence of the benefits he conferred upon the burghers and the peasants, he received the title of the Peasant King.

2. Poland and Hungary united, 1370—1382.

Casimer closed his career in 1370, and was the last of the ancient race of the Piasts. He was succeeded by his sister's son, Lewis (the Great), king of Hungary, in opposition to the Piast dynasty, who reigned as dukes in Mazovia and Silesia. Lewis, destitute of sympathy for his new subjects, whose language even he could not speak, left the kingdom in the hands of his mother, as regent, and retired to Hungary, but was soon compelled to return, in consequence of an outbreak between his Polish and Hungarian subjects, when, after much difficulty, he procured the election of his daughter, Maria, to the throne, as his successor, and appointed a new regent in the Duke of Oppelen, whom the Poles, on the departure of Lewis, refused to obey. The regency was now placed in the hands of three of the Polish nobility, whose government proved anything but beneficial to the nation. Lewis died in 1382. The nation was now involved in a ruinous civil war. Maria, whose succession to the throne was sanctioned in the lifetime of Lewis, was rejected. Among the many claimants, Hedwig, the beautiful daughter of Lewis, was selected, on condition of marrying any of the princes whom her subjects might select.

3. Poland and Lithuania under the House of Jagello, 1386—1572.

Jagello, the son of the Duke of Lithuania, was the object of the nation's choice, who consented not only to renounce Paganism himself, but to introduce Christianity into his hereditary dominions, and to annex them to the crown of Poland. Jagello (1386) was baptized under the name of Uladis-

las, and, on his elevation, assembled a diet at Wilna, and declared that idolatry should be extirpated. He laboured with the priests among his people, to instruct them in the doctrines and duties of Christianity, and founded a bishopric at Wilna, and several churches in the cities and towns of Lithuania, the government of which was entrusted to his brothers, who were constantly engaged in struggles with Uladislas for the dismemberment of the duchy. In 1409, Uladislas obtained a decisive victory over the Teutonic knights, between Tanneberg and Grunnervaldt, of whom 50,000 perished. They, however, supported by the German emperor (Sigismund), and the governor of Lithuania, continued to harass the king, and compelled him several times to pay large ransoms as the price of peace. On the death of Hedwig, the king vacated the kingdom, and retired to Russia, but soon after, on the solicitations of his subjects, returned. In 1434, he breathed his last, and his son, Uladislas v., a minor, was raised to the throne. During his minority, the Lithuanians, the Russians, and the Teutonic knights, continued to harass the frontiers; the inroads of the Turks, however, put a stop, for a season, to the aggressions of the former. On the death of Albert, king of Bohemia and Hungary, Uladislas was induced to accept the sovereignty of those kingdoms, which he was soon called upon to defend against the Turks, who had overrun Transylvania. Uladislas, with his Poles and Hungarians, crossed the Danube, and slew 30,000 Moslems in one pitched battle. Servia was restored, and the sultan, Amurath, was glad to conclude a peace, which, however, the sovereigns of Europe, backed by the papal legate, induced Uladislas to break, and to proceed once more against the sultan. They met near Varna; the Turks were victorious, and Uladislas, having penetrated to the very body guard of the sultan, the Janizaries, after having performed surprising deeds of valour, died by the side of the legate, covered with wounds (1444). Casimer iv., his brother, was elected to the throne, a prince too partial to the Lithuanians to attend much to the welfare of his Polish subjects. During his reign, the Prussians incorporated themselves with Poland, the better to enable them to throw off their allegiance to the Teutonic knights. This led to a sanguinary war between them and the Poles, which ended in a peace which secured Western Prussia, Pomerania, Culm, Malburg, the fortress of Danzyk, with Marienberg, Thorn,

etc., to Poland, while Eastern Prussia was to be held by the knights as a fief of the crown. In 1492, Casimer iv. died, and John (Albert) i., agreeably to his wishes, was elected to the vacant throne, while Alexander was appointed to the duchy of Lithuania.

Under this feeble monarch (Casimer iv.) the *aristocracy* obtained a complete ascendancy over both monarch and people. The diet, which had formerly consisted of individual nobles, summoned according to the king's command, was enlarged, and the number of voters extended. Every noble now claimed to be present, either personally or by proxy, and deputies were appointed to represent them, while the palatinates and districts also sent each of them two representatives. These, at length, assumed all the functions of the state, and rendered the senate powerless. The king was treated with indifference, while the rights and privileges of the peasants and serfs were trampled under foot.

PRUSSIA.

Prussia is totally unknown in history before the end of the tenth century, when Otho iii., who wrote the life of St. Adalbert of Prague, mentions the people on the coast from the Vistula to the Meuse, under the name of Prussians. They were a haughty, independent, idolatrous people, and fought desperately in the defence of their religion against the Christian crusaders. All attempts to proselyte them by force failed, although their territories were overrun with fire and sword. At length the Prussians became the aggressors, and took revenge upon the Poles for having assisted their enemies against them. The Duke of Mazovia, in his distress, entreated the assistance of the Teutonic knights, promising them the territories they should conquer, and that of Culm (1226). By degrees the knights, after a long and murderous war against the idolatrous natives, possessed themselves of nearly the whole of Prussia, when they constructed cities and forts, and founded several bishoprics and convents. Königsberg was built, 1255, and their chief residence, Marienberg, the capital of their order, in 1280. In 1283, the reduction of Sudavia, the last of the territorial possessions of the Prussians, took place, which concluded the obstinate struggle. The knights now turned their victorious arms against one of their allies, the Poles, and seized the fort of Danzyk, and the eastern portion of Pomerania (Danzyk), which was eventually ceded to them by the treaty of Kalitz (1343), with the territory of Culm and Michelau. Danzyk was now the residence of

their grand master, and became one of the chief emporiums of commerce on the Baltic. The knights having been successful against the heathen Prussians on the shores of the Baltic, now, under the pretext of converting them to Christianity, attacked the heathen Lithuanians. After a severe conflict, they were obliged to desist, having only been able to procure the territory of Samogitia, which was secured by the peace of Raczanz (1404). They were now joined by the *Knights of Livonia*, who had purchased Esthonia of the Danish king, Valdemar IV. Their possessions now embraced a territory which comprehended the whole coast of the Baltic from Danzyk to Narva, including the islands of Gottland, Oesel, Dagoe, etc. These attained the zenith of their greatness under their grand master, Winric von Kinprode (1351—1382), and had a flourishing commerce, and a well-regulated treasury. The order having obtained from the Emperor Sigismund the Neumark territory, on the north of Poland, the jealousy of that power was excited. The junction of Poland with Lithuania, and the embracing of Christianity by the latter, tended considerably to hasten their downfall, and to shatter their power. This received a severe blow when, at Tanneberg (1410), they were utterly defeated by the Poles, and Marienberg itself threatened. In 1416, the power of the grand master was restricted; a council of the country was established, consisting of ten nobles and ten representatives of towns. Afterwards, it embraced six rulers of the order, six ecclesiastical, and six lay nobles, with six burgesses, appointed by the grand master, who met them every year in council at Marienberg, where they deliberated on the affairs of the country. The Lithuanians regained (between 1411—36) Samogitia and Sudavia, but the oppressive government of the knights, and their internal dissensions, induced the Prussians and Pomeranians to form a confederacy with Poland for their complete annihilation. The war which ensued was not terminated till 1466, when what is now Polish Prussia was ceded to Poland, and the other portion, or Prussia proper, was to be retained by the master of the order, as a fief, and the chief residence to be transferred to Konigsberg, where it continued until the knights were finally deprived of their possessions by the house of Brandenburg.

§ 55.

HUNGARY.

1. Under the Arpads, 889?—1301.

The Hungarians were probably of Finnish or Turkish origin—perhaps a mixture of both, and emigrated, as is generally supposed, from Baschiria, a country stretching north and south from the source of the Tobol to the Jaik. They had located, under the name of the Agri, or Ogurs, considerably farther north, in Jugræa, between the Irtisch and Petschora rivers; but towards the close of the ninth century, they broke up their dwellings, and came down south, where they met with the Magyars. After having been long dependent upon the Turkish Chazars north of the Palus Mæotis (Sea of Azov), they proceeded towards the Danube, in order to escape the Cumans, or Patzinacites. Under their leader, Arpad, they crossed the eastern Carpathians, and took possession of the land between those mountains and the Save. In 892, Arnulph, the king of the Germans, employed the Hungarians against the Slavomoravians, who, under their king, Zwentibold, attacked the territories of Arnulph in Germany. While engaged in this expedition, their possessions in Transylvania and Dacia were attacked by the Patzinacites, who succeeded in driving them out. The Hungarians, now hemmed in between the Moravians and their enemies, attacked the former, and, on the death of their king, Zwentibold, took possession of all the Moravian territories lying between the Danube and the Carpathian Mountains, stretching west and east from Vienna to the Aluta river. About the same period also, they conquered Pannonia, and a part of Noricum, and thus laid the foundation of a new state, since known as the kingdom of Hungary. No sooner had they fixed themselves in their Pannonian possessions, than they formed plundering hordes, or bands, and proceeded, well armed, on horseback, to devastate the principal kingdoms of Europe. Germany, Italy, and Gaul, in consequence of internal dissensions, became an easy prey, nor did the eastern empire cease to experience the fatal effects of their ravages and devastations. At length, their career was stayed; Henry I., and Otho I., after a series of sanguinary engagements, beat them back, and delivered Europe from their savage incursions.

The first of the Slavian princes who took the title of king,

was Dircislaus (984), and his successor, Demetrius Swinimer, did homage to the papal see, and received its protection. In 1080, Ladislaus, whose sister had been married to Swinimer, possessed himself of Surmium, and, some time after, took advantage of the turbulent state of Croatia to sieze the Upper Slavonia, and other parts of that kingdom (1091). Colomon effected its final conquest in 1102, and was crowned, at Belgrade, King of Croatia and Dalmatia. These conquests in Dalmatia brought the Hungarians in collision with the Venetians, who held several valuable possessions on the coast of the Adriatic, and embroiled them in a series of wars, which did not terminate until the fifteenth century. Spalatro, Trau, Zara, etc., fell to the Hungarians, and the kingdom of Rama, or Boson (Bosnia), when Coloman took the title of King of Rama (1103). His successor bestowed the title on his son, Ladislaus, and thus paved the way for the introduction of those civil wars which, in later times, took place between the rival princes. In 1142, to encourage the cultivation of the soil, and to extend the blessings of Christianity, Geysa II. invited into Hungary, from the Netherlands, Flanders, and Saxony, vast numbers of Germans, as colonists, to whom he gave large privileges. They took up their position in Transylvania (1142), and shared in the extended privileges of the new constitution, which was obtained in the following reign. Andrew II., on his return from the Holy Land (see page 158), discovered his kingdom to be in a state of disorder and confusion, arising out of the conduct of the nobles, and others, who had usurped the estates and revenues of the crown, and allowed all the streams of justice to become polluted. Andrew convoked a general diet (1222), and procured the passing of the celebrated decree termed the Golden Bull, which formed the basis of that constitution which existed down to the most recent period (1849). Hungary was, more than almost any other European nation, subject to the inroads of the Turks. Under Bela IV. (1241), when Hungary was sunk in indolent ease and security, the celebrated Batou Khan inundated the whole country; and when they assembled under their king, and met the Turks on the banks of the Sajo, they were cut to pieces, and the king's brother, Coloman, slain. Bela fled to the Dalmatian Isles, and left his kingdom to the mercy of his enemies, who overran the provinces of Slavonia, Bosnia, Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, and Dalmatia,

destroying the inhabitants, and pillaging and burning the cities and towns. On their retreat, after a stay of from between two and three years, Bela reassembled his subjects, who were wandering in the forests, or hidden in the mountains; and to people the towns and cities which were rebuilt, he procured new colonists from Saxony, Bohemia, Moravia, and Croatia, and thus restored the kingdom again to comparative vigour and prosperity. In 1301, the descendants of the house of Arpad became extinct in Andrew III., and the crown was then contested by several princes; at length it fell to

2. The House of Anjou (the reigning family in Naples, 1308—1382), which gave to the kingdom, in Charles Robert (great-grandson of Stephen v.), and his son, Louis, the two great kings whose wise and vigorous government raised Hungary to a state of exaltation and prosperity. Louis II. conquered from the Venetians the whole of Dalmatia, from the frontiers of Istria to Durazzo: he rendered tributary the princes of Moldavia and Wallachia, the kings of Bulgaria and Bosnia, and, on the death of his uncle, Casimer the Great, ascended the throne of Poland, when Maria, his eldest daughter, succeeded him on the throne of Hungary (1382), and Red Russia became annexed to that kingdom, in lieu of Silesia. Shortly after her accession, Maria espoused Sigismund, of

3. The house of Luxembourg (1387—1437), and Hungary became united to the empire. The reign of Sigismund was distracted and unfortunate. In connection with his ally, the Greek emperor at Constantinople, he assembled a large army, and undertook the siege of Nicopolis, where he was completely routed by the Turks, and put to flight, with the loss of Bulgaria. This disaster led his subjects to elect another sovereign in his room, and Ladislaus, the king of Naples, was chosen, who surrendered the duchy of Dalmatia to the Venetians. Sigismund, on his return, obtained, by a treaty with the Prince of Servia, the strong fortress of Belgrade, which, as it was situated at the confluence of the Danube and the Save, proved a formidable bulwark for the protection of the Hungarian dominions. He left the crown to his son-in-law,

4. Albert, of the house of Austria (1438-9), who, having reigned a year and a half, died on his return from a campaign against the Turks, who had invaded Transylvania.

After his death, his consort, Elizabeth, gave birth to a son, at the castle of Comorn, who received the name of Ladislaus the Posthumous. The crown and daughter of the widow of Albert were offered to the Polish king, who, proud of being constituted the bulwark of Christendom, accepted it. Uladislas of Poland maintained a glorious contest against the Turks, and compelled them to sue for peace. He subsequently fell before Varna, covered with military glory, when Ladislaus the Posthumous succeeded to the throne of his ancestor. Albert, and the wise and brave Hunniades undertook the administration of affairs during his minority. He was several times victorious over the Turks, and, in 1456, compelled Mohamet II. to raise the siege of Belgrade, with the loss of 25,000 Moslems, and himself severely wounded. Hunniades died a few days after, and in the following year, Ladislaus died also, when Hungary was separated from Austria by the election of

5. A native prince (1457—1490), Matthias Corvinus, the son of the brave John Hunniades, who was the terror of the Turks during the whole of his reign. He recovered Bosnia, Transylvania, and all the other dependencies of Hungary south of the Danube, out of the hands of the Turks, and Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia, from Bohemia. He likewise took Austria from his opponent, the Emperor Frederick III., and fixed his residence at Vienna (1485), where he ruled over the country under the Ens, whilst Austria maintained possession of the territories over the Ens. Matthias closed his brilliant career in the city of Vienna (1490), having reigned gloriously for his country thirty-three years.

Pope Pius II., having been engaged in the Compactes (agreements) of the council of Basel, endeavoured to reunite the Hussites with the Roman church; and his successor, Paul II., engaged Matthias Corvinus, by promising him the Bohemian crown, to assist him in that enterprise: hence a devastating war ensued between the Hungarians and the Bohemians, in which the Emperor Frederick III. took the part of the Bohemians. The Hungarians therefore invaded the Austrian possessions of Frederick, which they overrun, compelling the inhabitants to take the oath of allegiance to their king. These were, on peace being concluded, subsequently restored to the emperor at a great sacrifice; but soon after, the war broke out again, on Frederick's obtaining the election of his son, Maximilian, as king of the Romans, contrary to the constitution of the empire. This was, however, put a stop to by the interference of the electoral college.

Matthias, during his reign, established a regular standing

army, and with a great military talent united a desire for elegant literature. He founded a university and library at Ofen (Buda), and proved himself a zealous protector of literature and learning, by inviting to his court the most eminent scholars and artists of Europe and the East. He likewise caused the laws to be ameliorated, and provided for their better administration, while he raised the kingdom to a high degree of splendour, without burdening his subjects with oppressive taxation. On the death of Matthias Corvinus without issue, the Hungarian throne, agreeably to compact, devolved upon the Emperor Frederick; but not being able to resist the powerful and popular King of Bohemia, that monarch was elected, and eventually acknowledged by the empire.

6. Hungary united with Bohemia (1490-1526). Maximilian, anxious to bring into his house the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, ruled over by Ladislas of Hungary, demanded an interview with Ladislas and his son Lewis, the regent of Bohemia, in order to advance his claims. Being resisted, an appeal to arms was the result, when the Hungarians were driven out of Lower Austria, and pursued by the Emperor to Stuhlweissenberg; when, for want of resources, he was compelled to withdraw (1491). In 1515, at an interview between the sovereigns, it was arranged that Lewis, the regent of Bohemia, should be affianced to the Archduchess Maria, the granddaughter of the Emperor, and that Anna, the daughter of the Bohemian king Ladislas, and sister of Lewis, should be united to the Archduke Ferdinand, and heir to the Spanish dominions. By this arrangement the accession of the Austrian House to the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia was permanently secured.

§ 56.

SURVEY OF THE PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION DURING THE MIDDLE AGES.

I. Religion.

a) Propagation of Christianity.—After the conversion of the Saxons under Charlemagne (see page 90), Christianity was gradually introduced among all the Germanic races; and in the ninth and tenth centuries was extended north and east, to the Scandinavians (in Sweden and Norway) and

Slavonic races (on the Baltic coast), as well as to the Hungarians. The Slavonians of the south, the Moravians and the Bohemians, received Christianity through the medium of missionaries belonging to the Greek or Eastern church, whilst the Russians became acquainted with the Greek ritual through the Constantinopolitan church, and therefore remained connected with it. Since the eleventh century the popes employed the secular arm in proselyting the heathens, and the nominally Christian nations of Europe were encouraged and commanded to undertake exterminating crusades against them. Christianity, or rather Romanism, was therefore embraced by the idolaters on the eastern and southern coasts of the Baltic, as the Pomeranians, Prussians, Esthonians, Livonians, Curlanders: the Prussians were rather exterminated than converted, as at the end of a fifty-three years' war with the Knights of the German order, there were scarcely any of the original Prussi left. The last to receive baptism were the Lithuanians, who, under the guidance and teaching of their grand duke, Jagello, consented to embrace the Christian faith (Romanism).

b) The monastic life (compare page 162). Monastic institutions became more general after the ninth century, and were adopted by the clergy of the cathedral and collegiate churches. Since the tenth century the monks were mostly priests, who occupied themselves according to the rules of the order of St. Benedict, in agricultural pursuits, various handicrafts, the instruction of youth, and the compilation of chronicles of history, and in copying or translating the works of ancient authors, etc. On the introduction of lay members, and the accumulation of wealth (the donations of the pious), the exemptions granted to the monasteries by the state at length produced a decay of discipline and disorder; and immorality prevailed to such an extent, that, at length, these establishments were brought into great and merited contempt. There were, however, some men among them who, by establishing new orders, and introducing a more strict discipline, effected at least a partial reform. Thus, at the commencement of the tenth century, the *Clunensian* Monks arose in Burgundy; and at the end of the eleventh, the *Carthusian* Friars, founded by St. Bruno, of Cologne, canon of Rheims, and the *Cistercians*, at Cistercium (Citeaux), near Nijon, which order at the commencement of the twelfth century was transformed

into the more noble order of *St. Bernard* of Clairvaux (hence in France the name of Bernadines): about the same period took place the foundation of the *Præmonstratenses*, by St. Norliert of Xanten, at Premontre. In the thirteenth century the four *Mendicant orders* rapidly succeeded each other—the *Carmelites* and the *Dominicians* (founded by the pious Spaniard Dominic de Gusman, at Toulouse), *Franciscans*, founded by St. Francis of Assisi, and the *Augustinian Monks*. They differed from the previously established orders in not possessing any property, but depending for their support entirely upon the charitable contributions of the pious. From among the Mendicant Friars there appeared many who, as preachers and professors of art and science, obtained a well merited celebrity. The *monastic institution* was also still further extended by the establishment of the religious orders of knighthood which had their origin in Palestine (Syria), and subsequently extended to the countries of Europe, causing the foundation of kindred institutions to be laid in Spain, Portugal, and Livonia. Besides monasteries for monks, since the fourth century numerous *Nunneries* sprung up, of a kindred character with those which had their origin in the plains of Hungary.

c) The differences which took place between the pope and the Byzantine emperor, Michael III., on the deposition of the patriarch Ignatius and the election of the weak and effeminate Phocius, laid the foundation of the separation of the Greek and Latin Churches, which, about the middle of the eleventh century (1054) became insurmountable, in consequence of the mutual excommunications of the pope (Leo IX.) and the patriarch of the court (Michael Cerularius). The repeated attempts at a re-union, made chiefly after the advancement of the Osman Turks into the countries of the West, proved ineffectual.

II. Constitution.

The changes or revolutions which took place in Germany and England produced results of a completely opposite character to those which were effected in France. In the latter, the power of the monarchy was strengthened by the additions made to the crown lands and the preservation of the succession in the Capetian house; while in Germany and England the power of the sovereign was weakened, and fell into decay. The English monarchs were obliged, during their wars with

France and Scotland, as well as with the greater barons and the anti-kings opposed to them, to yield great and lasting privileges to the people, their subjects; and the German monarchs became enfeebled and comparatively powerless, in consequence of the repeated changes of the dynasty, owing to the elective right being in the hands of the nobles; hence the chief aim of the German emperors was to increase their patrimonial inheritance and to add to the power of their respective houses. To accomplish these ends the rights and revenues of the crown provinces were sacrificed to the nobles for patronage, and the towns for money; this caused the latter to rise considerably in power and importance, and at length to become nearly independent. The German empire was, therefore, split into a number of separate independent principalities, and formed a federal republic, ruled over by elective princes, the authority of the emperor scarcely extending beyond his own immediate domains. On the extinction of the house of Hohenstaufen, the empire, by the divisions of the former great duchies, counted no less than 116 ecclesiastical and 100 temporal states. To the ecclesiastical belonged 6 archbishoprics, 37 bishoprics, 70 abbacies, and the 3 spiritual orders of knighthood. The temporal embraced 4 electorates, 6 duchies, and about 60 free or imperial cities.

In Italy a sort of political equilibrium or balance developed itself, chiefly through the preponderance of Florence, which occupied a middle position between the democratic states (commonwealths) of the North (Venice and Milan) and the absolutism of the South (the States of the Church and Naples), which partook of both the monarchical and the republican elements.

The great characteristic of the second half or period of the middle ages, is the rise of political Corporations, which pervaded all classes, and assumed various forms and conditions. They were exhibited in the spiritual order of knighthood, the Hansas or leagues of the Burghers, the Guilds and Corporations of the working classes (the artizans), the Universities and their national bodies, the Mercenaries or military bands of soldiers who hired themselves for pay, and the Bandit confraternities who acted as escorts to merchants and travellers, the fellowship of Builders (architects), and the Unions (or schools) of painters, and, since the fourteenth century, also in the Confederacies of towns, and the nobility (see pages 168—225).

a) *Rise and development of free citizenship* within the countries embraced by the Carolingian empire.

a a) In Upper and Central Italy the liberty, jurisdiction, and administration of the cities and towns had come into the hands of the magistrates, at the head of whom were the consules communes, who maintained a continuous conflict against the emperors of the house of Hohenstaufen.

At a diet on the Roncaglian plain, held during the second expedition of Frederick I. into Italy, a constitution was established, which overthrew the rights of the citizens, and took the administration out of the hands of the town consuls, and placed it in the hands of a single judge, an imperial lieutenant (*Podesta*); to him the *regales* or regal rights were committed. On the abuse of the authority entrusted to them they were expelled, and town or civic *podestas*, elected by the citizens, occupied their place. Subsequently the artizan citizens demanded a share in the administration, granted hitherto only to families of the patrician order, when the government was placed under the direction of an officer named *Capitano del popolo*, who was placed in opposition to the *podesta* and checked the violence of his proceedings. In war, when it was necessary that there should be no divisions, the command of the citizen warriors, as well as the jurisdiction of the town (for the time) was entrusted either to a neighbouring prince (*Signoria*) renowned for valor, or to some celebrated chief, termed a *Condottiere*.

b) In Germany, as in Italy, the constitutional liberty of towns, or progress of municipalities, was developed by their emancipation from the thralldom and jurisdiction of the counts, and by confederations formed among themselves.

The exemptions which the ecclesiastical dignitaries had obtained in the ninth century, for their territorial domains, from the Emperor Henry the Fowler, were also afterwards extended to the cities and towns of the secular nobility, in order to promote their foundation. In all these cities and towns more liberty was granted than to the inhabitants of the rural districts outside their walls. This, especially in Germany, was necessary, in consequence of the repugnance which the people entertained to living in walled or confined places. The *Weichbildrecht* (or town constitution) defined those privileges, and enumerated the exemptions of the citizens. The government of the town was in the hands of a bailiff or lieutenant, appointed either by the sovereign or the noble upon whose domains the city was erected; where the bailiff was entrusted also with the government of a castle, he was termed a *Burggrave*. A *President* was appointed for the regulation of civil affairs; but both the bailiff and the president were under the control of the *Schœffen* (*Scabini*) judges, who were chosen by the citizens, under the presidency of the bailiff, from among the free proprietors of the soil. To the *Schœffen*, and sometimes in conjunction with them, succeeded a college or senate of councillors, *Senatus*, consisting of twelve or more members, selected from the free burgesses, who were

under the presidentship of one or two *Mayors* (*Magistri civium*), or Consuls. These exercised the power committed by the sovereign to the bailiffs and presidents of the court, who were removed. During the reign of Frederick II. and the Interregnum, the inhabitants of the cities and towns, probably by the payment of large sums, procured an exemption from sending a military force to accompany the emperor in his wars, and in many instances withheld all feudal obligations, and did away with all the vassalitic rights to which they had been subject. The cities were subject immediately to, or taken under the protection of, the emperor; they were, however, self-governed, and eventually obtained, generally by purchase, regalian rights,—such as the coining of money, the collection of dues, and the holding of markets, with the privileges of an almost unrestricted commerce. In the fourteenth century the Communes or free corporations (*Guilds*) took entire possession of the government of the cities and towns, formerly the privilege only of the burgomasters, mayors, and the senatus or town council.

c) In France the nobility and clergy granted to the cities and towns the rights of sovereignty or self-government, from political motives, because they saw it to be to their interest to promote the prosperity of their vassals, or for large sums of money. The inhabitants received charters, and formed themselves into communities, elected their own mayors, sheriffs, or liverymen, established companies of militia, and took the charge of the fortifications and the wardenship of their cities. In the south of France the government of the cities were in the hands of officers termed syndics and consuls.

III. Legislation and Government.

The collections of laws made during this period chiefly embraced the penalties to be paid as compensations for theft and other crimes, varying according to the rank and condition of the individual. These laws were compiled either from the records of traditions, or consisted of abstracts of existing written laws, collected by the command of princes. Sometimes they were the works of private individuals, which, in process of time, being publicly sanctioned by the Assembly, were recognised as legal statutes. Among these were the *Lex Salica*, for the use of the Salian Franks; the *Saxon Lege* and the *Swabian Lege*, the former for the Germans of the North, and the latter for those of the South, which were chiefly compiled from the ancient customs and traditions of the people. There were also charters, granted by the sovereign, as the *Magna Charta Libertatum* of John of England, and the *Golden Bull* of Andrew II., of Hungary—decrees which fixed the rights and liberties of the subject,

and were ratified by the sovereign and the state. In civil proceedings the ordeals, and the judicial combat, were gradually abolished, but torture by the rack, with various other barbarous modes of extorting evidence, became much more common; many of these cruel practices are shrouded in impenetrable darkness; but in Germany such examinations are known to have been rendered most cruel and sanguinary, especially in the Duchy of Westphalia.

Criminal Law, founded in cruelty and blood, was in Germany, at Westphalia, administered by the free courts, presided over by judges chosen from among the free, under the presidency of a free count nominated by the emperor. The free courts of Dortmund and Aarnsburg, etc., eventually extended their jurisdiction, and in the fifteenth century took cognizance of certain crimes throughout the whole of the German empire,—as heresy, sacrilege, treachery, theft, murder, and perjury, etc., etc. The free counts assumed the power of deciding upon the punishment to be inflicted upon all criminals, as judges enfeoffed by the emperor with the penal jurisdiction; and for the execution of their sentences there existed a secret confederation composed of more than 100,000 members, who conducted their affairs by the aid of secret signs, and were dispersed over the whole of Germany.

IV. The Sciences.

At the commencement of the middle age learning and science were principally fostered by the *Greeks*, or *Byzantines*, and in all the most important cities and towns of the empire there were flourishing academies in which the Platonic philosophy, grammar, and rhetoric were taught. In the West the schools and colleges were almost exclusively the property of the church, and connected with the cathedrals and monastic establishments. The most famous of these were the capitular schools and convents of St. Gall, Corvey, Fulda, Paderborn, Hildesheim, Oxford, and Paris.* After the commencement of the ninth century the arts and sciences made a rapid advancement among the *Arabians*, in Asia, but especially in Spain, where they had founded the caliphate of Cordova. Under Hachem II. the arts in Spain may be said to have reached the golden era (see § 33). Under the caliphs (specially under the Sultan Mamun) no expense was spared; scholars were

* The flourishing condition of these early seats of learning is much indebted to the celebrated Alcuin, of York (where was a famous school, as well as at Canterbury), who, at the request of Charlemagne, took up his residence in France, and founded a school, the germ of the (then future) university of Paris; to a pupil also of Alcuin, the great celebrity of the school of St. Fulda was indebted.

invited from all countries to their courts, in which they took up their residence. Greek, Persian, Coptic, and Chaldaic manuscripts were bought and translated into Arabic, for the instruction of their Moslem subjects in the caliphats of Baghdat, Alexandria, Ispahan, Samarkand, Damascus, Kufa, Bassora, and above all in Cordova. Scientific institutes were established, universities and public schools were founded, in which not only Mussulmen, but Christians and Jews were instructed, and to which even the caliphs themselves resorted, to hear lectures on philosophy, medicine, mathematics, and natural history.

It was not until the second half of the middle age that the sciences were taught without the monastic walls by laymen and ecclesiastics; then, *literary corporations* or *universities*, founded and encouraged by sovereigns, took their rise in the great cities of Europe. First among them were the celebrated schools of jurisprudence at Bologna, and those of theology and of philosophy at Paris and Oxford (after the eleventh century). The students formed a privileged corporation or university, under self-government and the superintendence of the church. According to the model furnished by these universities, others were founded, so that at the beginning of the thirteenth century, there were schools and universities at Padua, Naples, Toulouse, Salamanca, Coimbra, Cambridge, etc. With these were introduced, about the close of the middle ages, two very important studies, which gave to learning an impetus hitherto unknown, and quite another feature to the study of the arts and sciences—

a) *The revival of the Study of Classical Literature*, at first prompted by the Florentines, Petrarch and Boccaccio, who obtained the highest celebrity as professors of classical learning, the fragments of which, scattered throughout Europe, were collected, collated, and explained. After the conquest of the Greek empire, when the Grecian literati, to escape the barbarity of the Turks, fled into Italy, a fund of literature found its way into the houses of the great in the Italian States, where they were protected and fostered by the noble family of the Medici, who patronised science and literature with a zeal equal to their immense wealth. The schools of Italy gave a ready reception to the writings of the ancients, and professors of Grecian language and literature were established in the schools of the Florentine republic;

these efforts were also well seconded by Laurentius Valla, Ticinus, and the Germans, Agricola and Reuchlin.

During the same period numerous public schools were established; among them was the celebrated school of Florence, founded by Cosmo di Medici, in which the Platonic philosophy was taught. Manuscripts were sought after and collected, as well as ancient coins, gems, inscriptions, etc.

b) *The Invention of the Art of Printing.*—The art of printing followed the invention of making paper from cotton, which was not introduced into Europe until the thirteenth century, when parchment was nearly wholly laid aside, excepting for lasting documents. Printing was first practised by the celebrated Senator Gutenberg, who printed from *moveable types*, while *the font*, was the invention of Peter Schœffer, of Guernsheim; the first work *printed* was the Gutenberg Latin Bible (1456).

Printing owes its origin to engraving on wood, and was practised by the card makers' fraternity in Germany for twenty-four years at least before the invention of printing from moveable types. Figures, illustrative of sacred history and legends, were represented on one side, while narratives explaining their meaning were printed on the other; a number of these was sometimes placed together and formed a book, which was frequently richly coloured and adorned, and sold at a very high price.

Theology was not introduced into the great schools and universities, as a science, until the thirteenth century, when *philosophy* took two predominant directions. In the one it appeared as the handmaid of religion; in the other as an assistant to the understanding, and the regulator of the moral feelings. a) The Scholastic Philosophy (so called because, since the days of Alcuin, the English scholar, it formed the chief subject of ecclesiastical study) consisted in determining the various dogmas of the church by the principle of logical argumentation based on the dialectic philosophy of Aristotle. b) The Mystical Philosophy which was explained practically in sermons in which the application of the dogmas of the church to the purposes of life was inculcated, and theoretically, in an intuitive contemplation of the Deity. The chief scholastic philosophers were Alcuin, Scotus Erigena (the Irishman), and Rabanus Maurus, both born in the ninth century, the former the founder of the mystic, and the latter, a pupil of Alcuin. Anselm of Canterbury († 1109), Abelard († 1142), and Peter of Lombardy. The most flourish-

ing period of the scholastic philosophy was under the fostering care of the Dominican friars Albertus Magnus († 1280) and Thomas Aquinas († 1274). The Franciscan monks Roger Bacon († 1294) and Duns Scotus († 1308) extended the study of dialectic philosophy, hitherto almost confined to theology, to subjects of natural philosophy. Already (in 1092) the scholastic dialecticians divided themselves into two principal schools—the Realists and the Nominalists; the former for a long time predominating and asserting the reality of general ideas, or the agreement of general ideas with the things themselves—in other words, that general ideas were things. The latter, the sceptical Nominalists, who in the fourteenth century rose to great importance, and held that all notions obtained by experience or thinking alone were mere shadows or conceptions—in other words, mere words or names. The chief representative of the mystical philosophy was St. Bernard of Clairvaux, who maintained a violent struggle against the dialectical philosophy. Among the Arabs the philosophy of Aristotle alone was explained and taught.

Jurisprudence was divided into two branches, *Civil* and *Ecclésiastical*, or *Canonical*; and the most renowned teachers of both civil and canon law were at the great school of Bologna. Among the professors of civil law was Irnevius († 1151), and of canon law, Gratianus († 1158), who compiled a book of ecclesiastical statutes termed *Corpus Decretum*.

Historiography formed the principal branch of Byzantine literature during the mediæval era, and was extensively patronised by the princely houses of Italy. It became a favourite subject among the Arabs, who however wrote without any regard to criticism; hence their best works consist of legendary tales which border on the marvellous, filled with eastern extravagancies and exaggerations, to suit their national predilections and to enhance their national glory. In the West, until the twelfth century, learning was exclusively in the hands of the clergy, whose legendary works, and annals, rivalled in marvellous exaggeration the productions of the East, while superstition and credulity were predominant features in the chronicles of history and ecclesiastical biography. It even found its way into the grave sermons and addresses of the priests. Hence, the learning of the West during this period consists of legends and biographies of the saints, and

chronicles of history, chiefly written in the Latin tongue, which was peculiarly the language of the church and of all public documents, for the national or vernacular tongue was not yet reduced to writing, nor was it employed in Europe until the closing period of the crusades, when (in the fourteenth century) it was adopted by the French historians Joinville and Geoffrey. For the copiousness of their details, as well as the number of their works, the Italians have the pre-eminence.

Geography, as a science, was considerably advanced by the conquests as well as by the commercial enterprizes of the Arabs, which extended in the East as far as to China and the Indian Archipelago, and in Africa, far into the interior of that continent. The higher northern portions of Europe were made known through the Normans, who frequented Greenland and even visited the coasts of Northern America (Massachusetts and Rhode Island). The frequent pilgrimages and crusades undertaken for pious purposes, and the travels of missionaries and private individuals all tended to add considerably to the geography of the East, as well as of Africa. The knowledge of the former was, to a great extent, circulated through the marvellous accounts of the overland journeys of the two brothers Polo and Carpini, and others. The use of the compass, then just introduced into Europe, enabled voyagers to undertake more distant expeditions; and soon after discoveries were made which astonished and delighted the nations of Europe, while they furnished adventurers who pursued them with a zeal and emulation such as has never been surpassed (see § 49).

In *Mathematics and Natural Philosophy* the Arabs became (in their schools in Spain) the teachers of Europe, and in these branches of learning the most successful efforts were made, investigating nature through the medium of speculative ideas, rather than from observation and experience, they occupied themselves with astrology, magic, and alchemy. In the natural sciences, *Medicine* in all its branches, with the exception of Anatomy (forbidden by the Koran), was deeply studied. The disadvantages arising from not being acquainted with the organic structure of the human body, however, was in some measure compensated for by their high advancement in botanical science (the medicinal property of herbs, etc.), and their proficiency in chemistry. Their knowledge of the latter science was much enhanced by their vain endeavours to discover the philosopher's stone, which should

change all metallic substances into gold. The medical knowledge of the Arabs was early transplanted into the countries of the West, where, at Salerno, in 1030, a school was founded, which maintained a high celebrity for centuries. In the thirteenth century the school of Montpellier was founded, and since that period the science of medicine was taught in all the schools of Italy, based, however, on Hippocrates and Galen as authors, whose works were translated from the Arabic. In the fourteenth century the science of medicine was practised by the lower orders of the clergy, and largely mixed up with the superstitions of the Roman faith.

V. The literature of the middle age was, first, a Christian Latin literature, composed for a peculiar class of scholars, and as it was devoted to ecclesiastical learning chiefly, it was disseminated almost wholly among the clergy; and, secondly, there was a national literature, which was of a poetic character, and designed for the people, written in the vernacular tongue, which since the ninth century gradually attained a firm and settled form, not only among the Germanic races, but also among the Roman people.

A. The National Literature of the Germans.

a) The poetry of the Scandinavians, among whom the Icelanders may be reckoned. In consequence of their detached and isolated situation from the rest of Europe, the Icelanders have handed down to us the most ancient and pure specimens of national poetry in the vernacular tongue extant. It may be divided into three kinds. 1st. Religious poetry, chiefly of a mythological character, embodying the whole circle of Paganism (a cosmographic mythology), or confined to the description of traditional national deities worshipped by an individual nation or people. 2nd. Heroic poetry (Historic Sagas), illustrative, almost exclusively, of the fictions and tales of the northern tribes and those which are common to all the Germanic races. Specimens of both classes of poetry are to be found in the Eddaic poems collected by Salmund the Wise (1033). 3rd. Songs of the Scalds, which was almost confined to historical subjects from the eighth to the eleventh century. The younger Edda, or the prose, was chiefly made up of romances interspersed with short poems.

On Christianity being introduced into Iceland, here, as in Germany, the popular poetry decayed, and a Christian poetry succeeded, but pro-

bably not before the fourteenth century, when the revival of a general national poetry took place. Meanwhile there was a large accession of prose literature, consisting of histories and mythic legendary tales, and collections of laws, with the modern Edda, a compendium of instruction for the younger Scalds, who aspired to the knowledge of mythology, poetry, rhetoric, and history.

b) The Anglo-Saxons had also at a very early period a copious poetical and prose literature. In the former, the epic form appears predominant, and their contents were partly national (as in Boewulf) and partly theological, in the eloquence of the pulpit, which rose to a high and flourishing condition.

The more recent Anglo-Saxon poetry (as in England, the southern possessions of the Angles) partook of both the epic and romantic character, and the songs or ballads common also among the northern Franks. In the north of Angle-land (England), and in the land of the Scots (Scotland), there was also a ballad poetry, similar to that of the German national ballads, which was sung by wandering minstrels, and harpers, who accompanied them on the harp or viol. They depended entirely upon the memory for their repetition, and were at that period the only historic compositions in existence. As Christianity prevailed, the poems of the minstrels took a sacred turn, and Bede relates of the minstrel monk Cædmon (1680) that he sung the creation of the world, the origin of mankind, the incarnation, passion, and resurrection of our Lord, and his ascension into heaven. Among the chief prose writers of the Anglo-Saxons in England were Aldhelm and Bede, the latter of whom may be regarded as the glory of the age in which he lived.

In Wales the Gaelic language was peculiarly rich in heroic ballads and tales, which recounted the deeds of their Gallic chiefs, and in which much of the history of the race was treasured up by the bards. Among the most famous of the Welsh poems were the Triads, for which a very high antiquity is claimed, and probably may be allowed.

The poems of Ossian (the alleged songs of the Scots located in the Highlands) recount the deeds of the King of Fingal, and consist of poetical fragments; by the majority of the learned they are, however, deemed to be spurious.

The Celtic songs of the Irish are chiefly fragments, but the prose of the Irish, consisting of historic records, or chronicles, are more ancient than those possessed by any other nation, in its vernacular tongue.

c) In Germany literature was, up to the period of the house of Hohenstaufen, almost exclusively in the hands of the clergy. The most ancient monuments of the German (Gothic) language are the fragments of a translation of the Bible by Bishop Ulphilus. But chivalry, the crusades, and the struggles of the house of Hohenstaufen with the popes, served to contribute to the development of literature, hitherto confined to the clergy, and to place it in the hands of the laity, whose works were chiefly poetic. The twelfth century was marked by the introduction of the "Nibelungen," a collection of heroic poems and ballads descriptive of the wanderings and migrations of the Germanic races of former ages. To this more popular epoch a courtly epic song or lyric poetry arose (Minnegesang), sung by minstrels at the courts of princes, and at the palaces of the nobility, the most refined professors of which were Henry of Valdeke, Hartman of Aue, Wolfram of Eisenbach, and Godfrey of Strasburg. The poetry of chivalry towards the close of the middle age gave way to the Meistergesang (master song, or songs of the free workmen) practised by the burghers and the artizans at their regular assemblies. Prose was but little cultivated before the close of this period.

B. National Literature of the Roman people.

a) The Provençal language spoken by the Franks south of the Loire was peculiarly rich, and distinguished by a high polish in comparison with the German dialects, although mixed up with foreign idioms and corrupt in pronunciation. It was the language of poetry, and in this tongue (*lingua Romana*) the songs of the troubadours were composed, which were recited by the minstrels at the courts of sovereigns, and the palaces of princes. It attained its highest point—its maximum of excellence, in the twelfth century, after which it gradually decayed and gave place to a lyrical erratic poetry, which assumed various forms, as Tenzones, Sonnets, Canzonets, Sestinetts, Ballads, etc.

Peculiar to this erratic poetry were the Sirventes, a species of songs which were sometimes satirical and severe, condemning the vices and foibles of nations and individuals, and at others laudatory, and filled with encomium and praise. The romantic and imaginative prose of the age was very extensive, but there are, notwithstanding, but few remains.

b) Almost at the same period the development of poetic literature took place in *Northern France*, chiefly in Normandy,

where the *Trouvères* produced works descriptive of ancient British, Frankish, and Norman scenes, lyric and allegoric poems, and in a series of romances taken from the Latin. They also wrote on theology and natural history. During the period of the crusades against the infidel Turks and the Albigensians, the French of the North became acquainted with the Provençals of the South, and a new epoch developed itself in their literature. Epic romances, contes, and fabliaux intended for narration only, were composed, while allegorical, lyrical, and satirical poetry abounded. About the same time attempts were made in dramatic poetry (at first with sacred subjects); and composition in prose (histories and biographies), according to the rules of criticism, were also introduced.

c) The songs of the Troubadours, which reached Spain from Provence, on its confines, served to give a character to the national poetry of the Castilians, which consisted principally of those compositions which recounted the martial deeds and heroism of the Cid (†1099). The Spanish ballad, however, was most predominant, and at a later date allegorical poetry arose, after the example of Dante. The dramas of Spain were all sacred, and represented the worship and mummeries of the Roman church. They consisted of mysteries and miracle-plays. The *mystery plays* were mixed up with certain burlesque and satirical characters: in the play of "Noah's Flood," the wife of the patriarch was represented as always quarrelling, and even given to drunkenness; and in the plays of the "Trial of the Virgin," and the "Scourging of Christ," such scenes were exhibited as could but excite disgust. The matter of which they were composed was Scripture narrative turned into dialogue, mingled with the vilest ribaldry; while, to awe the people, Hell and Purgatory, showing the varied torments of the different characters plunged into the fiery lakes, were also frequently set before them. The *miracle-plays* represented monkish legendary tales, and were calculated, like the former, rather to excite the laughter and disgust of the audience, than to promote their improvement, or to act as a check upon the vices of the great, which these representations were said to satirize. They were performed in the open air on a cart or stage, and in the churches. In France, Spain, and Germany they were known at the close of the twelfth century, and in England during the fifteenth.

d) The national literature of Italy during the middle

age was fostered by and under the influence of the church, and consisted at first of translations of works of antiquity. The north of Italy was early pervaded by the songs and poetry of the Provençals; while in the South, under the Normans, a pure Sicilian school arose. A combination of the two in the Florentine republic (the seat of political and literary strife) produced the old Italian school of poetry. In 1265 Dante Alighieri commenced his "Divina Commedia" (Wanderings in Heaven, Hell, and Purgatory), a work of its kind not excelled in more recent times; and soon after (1304—74) Francesco Petrarca brought forth his poems and sonatas, in which the style of the erratic poetry of Provence is blended with the Sicilian. In 1313 appeared the author of the "Decamerone," the "French Fabliaux" (fables), Giovanni Boccaccio (1313—75), who became the future model of Italian poets, and adopted the Tuscan dialect.

After a lapse of time Italian poetry took a higher range, especially during the ascendancy of the Medici, one of the members of which family (Lorenzo de Medici) being himself a successful imitator of the lyric style of Petrarch. Pulci, a friend of Lorenzo, also transplanted the romance poetry of Lombardy into the democratic state of Florence.

Music, the handmaid of poetry, had early been cultivated as a science, and a new system of *notation* had been introduced by Guido of Arezzo, and of *time* by Franco of Cologne. Towards the end of the middle age *singing in parts* had been introduced, as well as numerous improvements in the construction of musical instruments.

C. The literature of the *Arabians* partook of a scientific and poetic character. The former was the exclusive property of the court (the caliphs and sultans), the rich nobles, the learned men, and the officers of state. The poetic literature was disseminated among the people by a sort of wandering declaimers, who repeated from memory poems on every subject and of all kinds, with the exception of the dramatic. The prose literature was especially rich in tales of fiction (romances), among which is the "Thousand and one Nights."

Already, before the appearance of Mahomet, assemblies used annually to be held at Mecca, where poets from all parts of Arabia contended for a prize by reciting their compositions. The poems of the successful competitors were written in letters of gold, and hung up in the Caaba (from whence their name, Moallakat, the suspended). Seven of these poems have been preserved to us. In the (sometimes) sublime diction of the Koran, poetry assumed a religious cast. Under the Abbasidian caliphs, poetry degenerated into a courtly and servile effeminacy; but

lyrical legendary compositions, extolling the warlike deeds of their heroes, and romantic narratives of chivalry, were predominant.

D. From the eleventh to the fourteenth century *Persian* poetry reached its most flourishing condition, when the great Firdûsi, commanded by the sultan, sung his epic poem, which embraced the history of the Persian monarchy from the most remote period down to the fall of the Sassanides. It is recorded in the "Annals of the Magii," and consisted of 60,000 double verses. In the fourteenth century Hafis was the most celebrated Persian epic poet.

VI. The Arts.

Architecture among the arts evidently for a long period obtained the ascendancy, and was chiefly developed in the construction of religious edifices; first in the Greek style, afterwards in the rich and noble Norman and Gothic styles.

a) *Ecclesiastical architecture* during the middle age, embraced three principal styles, viz., the *Byzantine*, the *Romanesque*, and the *Gothic* (German) styles.

aa) The *Byzantine Style* was founded on the structure of the *Basilicæ*, or halls of justice of the Romans. They were of rectangular form, and divided into three or five sections by rows of pillars or columns, which ran the whole length of the building. At the end of the building there was a semicircular recess, in which was placed the tribunal of the judge, where, in subsequent times, the altar found its place, while the male portion of the congregation occupied the central oblong space, and the women occupied the galleries erected over the aisles. The earliest specimen is that of the *Basilica of St Clement*, at Rome; but far surpassing it is the church of *St. Sophia*, or the *Eternal Wisdom*, built by Constantine at his eastern capital, Constantinople (*Byzantium*). A departure from this form soon took place, and the central nave was elevated to a considerable height above the lateral or side naves, being supported by semicircular arches, which rested upon numerous columns. The central roof or dome was of a hemispherical form (or half circle), and frequently adorned with paintings of an emblematical and scriptural character. *Crypts*, or subterranean chapels, were also early introduced, in which were deposited the relics of canonized saints. The introduction of the *cupola*, or arch, into the ancient *Basilicæ* form, is the most perfect *Byzantine* style, and is exhibited in the *Christian churches* of Rome, Ravenna, and other towns of Italy, and Aachen (*Aix-la-Chapelle*), in each of which the plan is that of an octagon, formed of semicircles. The *Church of the Holy Sepulchre* at Jerusalem is also of this construction.

bb) The *Romanesque Style* (ringed arches, apsidal).

The *Romanesque* is founded on the *Byzantine* style, uniting with it the cruciform ground plan, and the semicircular apsis, with secondary apsidal (circles). A particular space in the principal nave was also

assigned to the choristers, underneath which was a spacious crypt used as a chapel. The arched vault also took place of the flat roof, and detached cupolas or domes were introduced. The principal alterations, however, were in the interior, in the details of the building, in the restoration of enriched columns, or pillars; while at the exterior there were introduced into the façade, chiefly at the portals, on the diverging sides of the doorways of the vestiarium and the evangelium, ornamental decorations of an exquisite richness. The steeples, too, were not always placed in the centre of the cross; double steeples were introduced at the façade, which, with the dome or cupola, formed a group.

The most renowned works of Romanesque architecture were erected by the church in Italy and in Germany; first in the land occupied by the Saxons, and then in the countries on the Rhine, where also are numerous monuments exhibiting the transition style from the Romanesque to the Gothic or German, in which there is a tendency to the lofty pointed tower or spire.

c c) The *Gothic* or *German* Style (the pointed arch style).

The peculiar construction of the pointed arch gave a lightness and airiness to the sacred buildings, which before were heavy and sombre. The Gothic shares with the Romanesque the cross-form plan (cruciform), and the richly adorned triple façade. In the interior, where the greatest changes were introduced, there was a peculiarity in the structure of the pillars. Nave arches, springing from square piers, to each face of which a half column was attached, and semi-circular columns placed against a circular stem or trunk (clustered columns), became common; the enrichment of the windows took place, which served to fill up their broad and ample spaces; trefoiled heads were introduced, and mullions, which separated them. Instead of being semicircular, the heads of the windows were lancet-shaped, long, and narrow. The crypt, under the principal nave, was removed, and the place assigned to the choristers remained no longer elevated, while its dimensions were increased; the lateral or side naves were double, and formed circular recesses, used as small chapels. The capitals of the columns were sometimes of the Corinthian style, and at others decorated with the heads of animals, as griffins, eagles, etc., while the walls were richly adorned with a profusion of Mosaic and other ornamental work: the mouldings and ornaments were of the most florid style. The windows were also decorated with painted pictures on glass. Outside, the differences betwixt the Romanesque and the Gothic styles were more striking still. The massive walls gave way to circular and pointed arches supported by columns or pillars, and the portals at the cross ends of the edifice were richly adorned. The façades were separated by buttresses richly ornamented with canopies and statues in relief, crowned by pointed gables: niches and statues occupied the diverging sides of the doorways; and where the nave was intersected by the transepts, rose an octagonal tower a little elevated

above the roof of the nave, and sometimes covered with a cupola; while two steeples corresponding with the two lateral naves surmounted the whole building: these consisted of several stories, above which was a pyramidal octagonal spire pierced with ribs, and far surmounted the whole building.

Since the twelfth century, the richer and more wealthy laity took a share in the cultivation of the arts and sciences; so that architecture passed out of the hands of the church into those of the temporal princes, etc. For the execution of the great and noble buildings which characterized the thirteenth and two following centuries organized societies, or lodges of Masons, arose (Freemasons), which subsequently extended (from England?) throughout the German empire, and kept up a correspondence with the principal lodges of Strasburg, Vienna, and Cologne: They were governed by regular laws, and animated by an ardent love for the advancement of architectural science; and such was their industry, that, few as they were comparatively, 157 abbeys and religious houses in England, besides others on the continent, were erected by them during the reign of the Plantagenets.

The most ancient monuments of the Gothic, or Germanic architecture (embracing the German, French, and Norman, etc.), are to be found in Northern *France*, in the cathedrals of Paris, Chartres, Bourges, Rheims, Beauvais, Rouen and Amiens; and in the *Netherlands*, chiefly in the cathedral churches of Antwerp, Brussels, and Louvain. In *England* there existed, as early as the seventh century, some noble specimens of ecclesiastical architecture in the abbeys of Rippon and Hexham, and in the monasteries of Wiremutha (Wear Mouth) and Jarrow. The style was that of the Romanesque (Anglo-Saxon), of a cruciform plan, with side aisles (lateral naves). Crypts and oratories were introduced, beneath which the walls and vaulted roofs of the edifice were adorned with carved images, and paintings of various colours. At first there were no towers, and, when introduced, were placed at the western end of the building. Sometimes two towers were erected, as at Ram's Eye Abbey; the one at the western end of the building, the other in the centre, where the chancels cut the nave. On the accession of the Conqueror, a new style was introduced, that of the *Anglo-Norman*—cruciform in plan, with a very low tower, taking its rise near the spot where the choir and nave are intersected by the transepts.

Two cross naves were also sometimes introduced, and apses, or semicircular chapels, placed at the eastern end of the building and of the transepts, were common, while the western, or principal front, was often flanked with towers. The columns and arches of the naves were painted with gay and brilliant colours, while the windows were adorned with paintings on glass, representative of scripture or monkish legends. Castings in bronze were also made use of as ornaments, and the western and southern doorways were enriched by a profusion of ornamental mouldings and sculpture, which decorated the receding arches, the tympanum of which was also adorned with sculptured representations of our Saviour, angels, and saints, etc. Canterbury, Salisbury, and York cathedrals, and Westminster Hall and Abbey, with Henry the Seventh's Chapel, are among the most noble specimens of early English architecture.

The grandest development of architecture was in Germany, which lays claim to ecclesiastical structures superior to almost any other country, and possesses peculiarities that are not to be observed elsewhere. At first, the Romanesque style prevailed, and then the strangely pointed arch was interwoven into it; the most perfect specimen of which is that of the yet unfinished cathedral of Cologne, commenced (1248). To the same century belong also the minsters of Friberg and Strasburg (the latter by Ervin of Steinbach), and the cathedral of Ratisbon. In the fourteenth century, St. Stephen's, of Vienna, and the cathedrals of Prague and of Ulm were erected, and in the north-western portion of Germany, the churches of Marburg, Wetzlar, Minden, and Soest had long existed; they were, however, more simple in structure than the preceding edifices, and vaulted or arched naves were general, as also semicircular windows. At the close of the fourteenth, and at the beginning of the fifteenth centuries, German architecture assumed a lighter style and a more simple character, and this is especially apparent in the Baltic countries, to which the architecture of Italy was conveyed by Charlemagne. In Italy the most sublime specimens of ecclesiastical architecture are exhibited in the cathedral of Milan and the monastery or church of Pavia. Here a new school arose, which professed to make the works of antiquity its models: its specimens of architecture are scattered throughout the whole of the peninsula; but the most noble are at Pisa and Florence. With far less purity of style than in Germany, Italian architecture influenced that of Spain, as may be seen in the edifices erected by the Moors, who probably were indebted to the Romans for the columns which supported the naves of the mosque at Cordova.

Mohammedanism, in its extension over countries long possessed by the Romans, adopted at first the forms of Christian architecture; but there was one grand exception,

in that of sculpture; the Koran forbade the representation of the human figure. This deficiency was, however, in some measure supplied by the Arabic inscriptions which adorned their mosques.

In the structure of the Arabian mosques, two forms prevailed: the first consisted of a large square court, surrounded with arcades, and was therefore nothing more than the architectural decoration of an open space, while the second was a close building, the chief space of which was surmounted by a cupola, and its sides adorned with vaulted or arched spaces, similar to the Turkish buildings of the present day. The mosque is peculiar in the construction of the Minaret, which is an arch of the horse-shoe form, richly ornamented with Arabic inscriptions. Monuments of Moorish art existed in Spain, at Cordova, before the erection of mosques by the Mohammedan Turks.

The Azzahra, on the Guadalquiver, the splendid remains of which can just be traced, and the Alhambra, preserved down to the present time, and the later imitation in the Alcazar, were splendid specimens of Moorish architectural grandeur. The transition form, from the Moorish to the Eastern, or Asiatic style, may be seen in the mosques of Egypt, at Cairo and Alexandria; and in Syria, at Jerusalem and Damascus. The mosques of Asia Minor and Constantinople belong to a more recent period of Mohammedan art, and have the Byzantine cupola structure as their foundation, that of the church of St. Sophia being more or less imitated. *Persia* and *India* have also their architectural monuments, remarkable for their gigantic dimensions. Their Mohammedan edifices were, for the most part, not erected until the reign of the Great Mogul, in the twenty-first century.

b) *Sculpture and Painting* being forbidden by the Koran, specially in representing the human figure, these arts were entirely neglected by the Arabs. The same feeling of aversion to idolatry exhibited by the Moslem, was also, for a long period, manifested by the early Christians, and sculptured representations in the churches, especially in relief, were forbidden: hence sculpture was applied almost solely to decorative purposes, painting alone being permitted to adorn the large surfaces on the walls and vaults of the Basilicæ. The predilection for striking magnificence, and perhaps a regard to preservation, led to an early introduction of the Mosaic style of painting, with gold groundwork, which finally superseded the former.

The most important specimens of ancient Christian

Sculpture, are reliefs found on the sarcophagi and ivory tablets (diphyces), which were made to shut up or close, and elaborately carved on the outer sides, sumptuous articles of furniture, and metal ornaments. The oldest specimens of Painting on Walls, are in that remarkable refuge from persecution the catacombs of Rome and those of Naples; while Mosaics composed of coloured glass commonly adorned the walls and larger spaces of the vaults of nearly all the churches. The finest preserved specimens are at Ravenna. A great movement took place in the development of painting, when the monks adorned their missals and manuscripts with miniature pictures, and illuminated initial letters, etc., etc.

In the thirteenth century, a rapid advance took place both in the art of sculpture and of painting, which then began to be regarded as independent sciences. In *Sculpture*, Nicola Pisana († about 1200), taking the antique for his model, arrived at great perfection; and in *Painting*, Cimabue († about 1300) and Duccio, with the most complete success, practised painting in oil, on boards of oak, which was also practised in the schools of Germany, under the masters Wilhelm and Stephan. Painting on the Walls had been thrown into the shade by the superior specimens produced by Painting on Glass, which, at the close of the tenth century, was invented by an artist of Bavaria. It was used in the adorning of the walls of ecclesiastical edifices, specially in the beautifying of the arched vault of the choir (as in Cologne), and the halls and cloisters of the religious houses of the time. It was introduced by Giotto († 1336) into the school established by him in the Florentine republic.

Painting in oil is generally ascribed to the two brothers Van Eick, in the fourteenth century: it is, however, probably of an earlier date. De Mechel mentions having seen three pictures in the Gallery of Vienna, one having the date 1297, and the other two that of 1357: they were all painted on panelled wood.

VII. Commerce and Manufactures flourished in the first half of the middle age, principally in the countries subject to the Arabians; chiefly in Spain. The overland commerce of the Arabs was carried on by means of caravans, and extended over the countries of North and North-eastern Africa, Persia, Arabia, and the countries of interior Asia, as far as to China and Europe, the lands on the east and north of the Euxine Sea, and the Spanish peninsula; their voyages

extended over the Arabian and Persian gulfs, and the Mediterranean, Indian, and Chinese seas.

In the second half of the mediæval period, the commerce of the sea, or the maritime trade, was (a), in the South, chiefly in the hands of the Italians. At the first, Venice shared with Genoa the dominion of the Mediterranean, and carried on her trade with the East Indies, Syria, and Africa, by the Egyptian route; Genoa traded to Byzantium, the Black Sea, the countries of the Levant and the Euxine Sea, and the Grecian Archipelago, the most important islands of which had been garrisoned either by them or the Venetians: they had possessions also in Greece and the Taurican Chersonesus. After a lingering war (see § 46) between both powers, Venice, which vanquished her rival, united with the commerce of Eastern India that also of the Levant. b) The trade of Northern and Western Europe was in the hands of the *Hansas*, or commercial leagues, which sprung up rapidly during the second half of the middle age. The great confederacy of the German Hansa consisted of about eighty towns, belonging either to the Netherlanders, the North Germans, or the Prussians; they were united for the promotion and defence of their commerce against the plundering attacks of pirates on the sea, and armed plunderers on the land, who refuged in castles, from which they could not be easily dislodged. Since the middle of the thirteenth century, the great Hansa was separated into a number of smaller Hansas, or Corporations: at first there were three, then four. The chief or central city of the Westphalian Hansa, was Cologne; that of Prussia was Danzyk; that of Wendish Saxony was Lubeck, and that of Saxony (Proper) was Brunswick. They had their depôts and offices at Bruges, at Novgorod, and in all the seaports of the Baltic and German seas. They were sufficiently powerful to wage war with the Spaniards, and to make their fleets respected in all the seas, and were regulated by a diet, which issued the laws by which all the cities were governed. Cologne was, at first, the chief city or capital of the union; but after a long struggle, Lubeck obtained the ascendancy. On the destruction of Vinetha, at the mouth of the Oder (one of the largest commercial towns of Europe), and Julin, in the twelfth century (1170), by the Danes, Hammanburg (Hamburg) and Lubeck became the most flourishing towns of Northern Europe, and, a treaty for mutual protection

against the aggressions of the Danes having been entered into by them, they attacked and destroyed the city of Copenhagen, 1247. The union of these two towns was the origin of the great German Hansa, which, in the thirteenth century, extended its commercial connexions as far as England, where a Guild Hall was erected for the transaction of their affairs. Flanders, Danemark, Pomerania, Livonia, and Italy, were all so many centres of the great Hansa, which existed feebly down to the seventeenth century.

The Inland Commerce between the East and the West was carried on through the medium of the Rhine and the Danube; that between Northern Germany and Italy (from Danzyk and Kiov as far as to Venice), was by the privileged citizens of Vienna and Ratisbon, Nuremburg and Augsberg. An extensive intermediate trade between the South (Constantinople and Venice) and the North (the Prussian and Sclavonian countries), was also carried on by the inhabitants of Breslau. Towards the close of the middle age, the markets and fairs of Frankfort on the Maine acquired a high commercial reputation. Vienna, on the Danube, and Cologne, on the Rhine, were also chief stations of the inland trade, and possessed great commercial privileges and exclusive rights. The chief depôt of the inland trade of France was first at Troyes; since 1445, the principal market was at Lyons.

The Trades of the towns, owing to the establishment of Corporations, or Guilds, enjoyed considerable prosperity, and were extensively engaged in furnishing the supplies of the army, and the demands of chivalry. The inhabitants rapidly increased in wealth and number, and at length became so important, that their rulers vied with the greatest princes of Europe. Venice, Florence, Milan, Marseilles, Barcelona, Antwerp, and Cologne, were among the towns in which handicraft professions most flourished.

From the middle of the twelfth century, those who practised the same trade began to associate in corporations (*guilds*), and in order to restrict the exercise of their respective trades to the members of the corporation, who regulated their affairs by statutes fixed by themselves, and sanctioned by the community, they were not allowed to be carried on beyond a certain space from the town, called the ban-mile; but if members carrying on the same trade met in different towns, they were considered as confederates, and permitted to enjoy the free exercise of their profession: thus these trade corporations eventually extended,

not only beyond the boundaries of the towns, but over the whole country.

The productions of the North, as hemp, flax, timber, potash, corn, furs, tar, hides, copper, and the produce of the fisheries, were exchanged for the wines, fruits, drugs, and woollen cloths of Europe; and the tapestries, cloths, cotton, and camlets of the Netherlands were brought to England, where they were exchanged for raw wool. Italy furnished the productions of the countries of the Levant, and the silken and other stuffs of the East. Subsequently the Lombards became almost the sole merchants of Europe, and had their counting-houses in every capital city both of Europe and Western Asia. They enjoyed great privileges and immunities, and became the bankers of all the countries in which they were established; to them probably we owe the first introduction of bills of exchange and notes into the transactions of commerce.

The close of the middle age, and the beginning of the modern, gave birth to many other important inventions besides those which have been noticed above:—1. The art of Engraving on Copper, ascribed to a Florentine goldsmith (Finneguerra—1460). 2. Copper-plate Printing, which, before the close of the fifteenth century, followed the invention of engraving on plates. 3. Engraving on Wood (practised by Schœn of Colmar, 1486). 4. The invention of Gunpowder, and the introduction of Cannon, known to have been used in the Moorish wars against the Spaniards, in the middle of the fourteenth century. 5. The introduction of the Mariner's Compass into Europe by the Portuguese in the twelfth century.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

B. C.

- 113—101. Wars of the Cimbrî and Teutones against the Romans.
58— 57. Wars between Ariovistus and Julius Cæsar, for the Dominion of Gaul.—The Germans driven across the Rhine, at the battle of Vesontio (Besançon).
15. Rhœtia, Vindelicia, and Noricum united to the Roman empire by the Victories of Drusus and Tiberius.
12— 9. Campaigns of Drusus in Germania Proper.—Tiberius unites the Nations from the Rhine to the Elbe, and persuades them to acknowledge the Roman sovereignty.

A. D.

9. The Liberation of the Germans from the Roman sway, by the Victories of Arminius, who enticed Varus into the Teutobergian forest, and defeated the Roman armies.
14— 17. Campaign of Germanicus to recover the lost provinces in Germany. Wars between Arminius and Marbod.
69— 70. Batavian war of liberation.
106—180. Wars of the Marcomanni and Quadi.
375. MIGRATIONS OF THE NATIONS—Gothic invasion.
378. Wars of the Goths, Huns, and Alans—Defeat of Valens at Adrianople.
395—1453. EASTERN, OR BYZANTINE EMPIRE.
407—553. Burgundian kingdom in Gaul.
409. The Vandals and Alans in Spain.
409—585. Suevic kingdom established in Spain.
410. Rome occupied and plundered by Alaric.
445. Landing of the Angles and Saxons in Britain.
451. The Invasion of Gaul by Attila, and his defeat at the Catalaunian plain, by Ætius, the Roman general, assisted by Theodoric, the king of the West Goths, who fell in the engagement.
452. Invasion of Italy by Attila—Venice founded by the Veneti, who escaped to the Lagunes of the Adriatic.
455. Rome plundered by the Vandals, under Geiserich.
476. FALL OF THE WESTERN ROMAN EMPIRE.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

FIRST PERIOD.—FROM THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE TO THE
ACCESSION OF THE CARLOVINGIANS AND ABASSIDES, 476—750.

A. D.

- 476—493. The Italian empire of Odoacer.
- 493—555. Empire of the Ostro-Goths, in Italy.
496. Battle of Zülpich (Chlodvig's death).
507. Southern France taken from the Visi-Goths, by Chlodvig, after their defeat at the plains of Vougle.
- 527—565. Justinian I.—Legislation—Nika—Architecture—Destruction of the Vandal empire by Belisarius.
- 513—712. Elective Visi-Gothic monarchy in Spain.
533. Kingdoms of Thuringia and Burgundy united to Spain.
534. Empire of the Vandals overthrown by Belisarius.
- 535—555. War between the Ostro-Goths (under Totilas and Tejas) and the Byzantines (under Belisarius and Narses)—Rome occupied at five different times by the Barbarians.
- 555—568. Italy subject to the Byzantine, or Greek empire.
- 558—561. The Frankish monarchy re-united under Clotaire I.
562. The Frankish empire divided among the four sons of Clotaire I.
613. The Frankish empire re-united under Clotaire II.
- 568—774. Lombard kingdom founded in Upper and Central Italy, by Alboin.
622. Flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina—The Hégira (Hedschra).
632. Death of Mohammed.
- 632—661. The four caliphs of the Koreisch race, viz., Abu-Bekr, Omar, Othman, and Ali—Conquest of Syria, Palestine, Phœnicia, Egypt, the northern coast of Africa, with Cyprus and Rhodes—The Persian empire.
- 661—750. The thirteen Ommaiyad caliphs—Great extension of the Arabian empire.
711. Tarik's victory over the Visi-Goths, at Xeres de la Frontera.
712. The whole of Spain in possession of the Arabians, with the exception of the Christian state of Asturia.
- 716—754. Bonifacius in Germany.
734. Charles Martel's victory over the Arabians, between Tours and Poitiers.
750. Assassination of the Ommaiyades.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

A. D.

SECOND PERIOD.—TO THE TIME OF THE CRUSADES, 1100.

- 750—1258. The Abassidian caliphs.
- 752— 911 (987). THE CARLOVINGIANS.
- 752— 768. THE CARLOVINGIANS—Pepin the Short—Two expeditions into Italy for the protection of the Pope against the Lombard king, Adolf (Astolphus).
- 756—1028. Cordova an independent caliphate.
- 768— 814. CHARLEMAGNE (Charles the Great).
771. Charlemagne sole monarch, by the death of Carloman.
- 772— 804. Wars against the Saxons.
- 773— 774. Conquest of Lombardy by Charlemagne.
778. War in Spain—Defeat of the Mohammedan governors on this side the Ebro—Disastrous retreat through the valley of Roncesvaux—Death of Roland.
- 787— 788. Dissolution of the duchy of Bavaria—Death of Tassilo.
- 791— 799. Wars against the Avars—Extension of the empire to the banks of the Theiss—Subjugation of the Slavish tribes on the eastern frontier of the empire.
800. Restoration of the Western Roman empire—Charlemagne receives the imperial crown at Rome.
- 814— 840. LEWIS THE PIOUS—Division of the empire among his three sons.
- 827—1016. Kingdoms founded by the West Saxons in England.
- 840—1370. The Piasts in Poland.
843. Division of the Frankish empire by the treaty of Verdun.
- 864—1598. The dynasty of Rurik, in Russia.
- 867—1056. Macedonian emperors at Constantinople.
- 871— 901. Alfred the Great.
887. Charles the Fat deposed—Final division of the Frankish empire into five portions.
- 887— 987. THE LAST CARLOVINGIANS IN FRANCE.
887. ARNULF OF CARINTHIA—Defeat of the Normans near Louvain—Arnulf forms an alliance with the Magyars against Zwentibald.
- 888— 962. Italy under native sovereigns.
- 889—1301. The Arpads in Hungary.
- About 900. Four Scandinavian kingdoms.
- 900— 911. LOUIS THE CHILD—Invasion of Germany by the Hungarians.
- 911— 918. CONRAD OF FRANCONIA—His authority disputed by the princes—Lotharingia annexed to France—Irruptions of the Hungarians.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

A. D.

- 919—1024. Saxon emperors.
- 919— 936. Henry I.—The empire re-united—Lotharingia restored to Germany—Nine years' truce with the Hungarians—Military improvements—Subjugation of Bohemia and the Wendish tribes, as far as the Oder—Defeat of the Hungarians at Merseburg.
- 936— 973. Otho I. (the Great).
951. First Italian campaign—Berenger a vassal of the German empire.
955. Defeat of the Hungarians on the bank of the Lech—The Sclavonians subdued, and the extension of the German empire to the Vistula.
962. Otho's Roman expedition—Crowned at Rome, by the title of Emperor of the West—Berenger taken prisoner, and banished.
- 966— 972. Third Italian campaign—War with the Greeks, in Lower Italy.
- 973— 983. Otho II.—War with Lothaire of France, for the possession of Lotharingia, and the defeat in Lower Italy, which was ceded to the Greek emperor—Death of Otho.
- 983—1002. Otho III.—Rebellion of Henry, duke of Bavaria—Otho crowned at Rome—Victory over the Obotrites.
- 987—1328. THE CAPETIAN KINGS IN FRANCE.
- 1002—1024. Henry II.—The Margrave Hardwin of Ivrea—Wars against the Poles—The Italian war.
1002. Massacre of the Danes in England.
- 1016—1042. The Danes subdue all England—Canute.
- 1024—1125. FRANCONIAN EMPERORS.
- 1024—1039. Conrad II.—Burgundy united to the empire—The March of Schleswig ceded to the Danes—Hereditary feudalism established.
- 1039—1056. Henry III.—Greatest extension of the empire—Truce of God, "Treuga Dei," in Aquitania—Deposition of the Popes, for Simony.
- 1042—1066. Restoration of the Anglo-Saxon kings in England.
- 1056—1106. Henry IV.—Regency of the Empress Agnes—Administration of the archbishops of Cologne and Bremen.
- 1066—1154. Norman kings in England.
- 1073—1075. The revolt of the Saxons.
- 1073—1085. Disputes with Pope Gregory VII. and the German princes, respecting the right of Investiture.
1077. Henry IV. and Gregory VII. at Carnossa.
1094. The county of Portugal.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

A. D.

THIRD PERIOD.—PERIOD OF THE CRUSADES, 1096—1273.

- 1096—1100. THE FIRST CRUSADE—Peter the Hermit, of Amiens—The councils of the Church—The taking of Nicæa and Antiochia.
1099. Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders—Godfrey de Bouillon elected king—Battle of Ascalon.
- 1099—1187. KINGDOM OF JERUSALEM.
1100. Death of Godfrey de Bouillon.
- 1106—1125. Henry V.
1122. End of the dispute respecting Investiture by the Concordat of Worms.
- 1125—1137. LOTHAIRE THE SAXON—Bavaria and Saxony united under the house of Guelph—Disputes with the Hohenstaufen for the crown.
- 1130—1194. The kingdoms of the Two Sicilies under Norman dukes.
- 1138—1254. THE HOHENSTAUFEN.
- 1138—1152. Conrad III.—Henry the Proud deprived of his dukedom of Bavaria—Siege of Weinsberg.
- 1147—1149. SECOND CRUSADE—Edessa taken by the Turks—Conrad III. and Louis VII. unsuccessful in Palestine—Return of the two kings to their own dominions.
- 1152—1190. FREDERICK (II.) BARBAROSSA—His first Italian campaign—Execution of Arnold of Brescia—Restoration of Bavaria to Henry the Lion.
- 1154—1139. England under the house of Plantagenet.
- 1158—1162. Frederick (I.) second Italian campaign—The Milanese subdued—Diet on the Roncaglian plain—Destruction of Milan.
1166. Frederick's third campaign, for the purpose of placing Paschal III. on the papal throne—Returns without his army—Alessandria founded.
- 1174—1178. Fifth Italian campaign—Defection of Henry the Lion.
1176. Frederick defeated at Legnano.
1183. Peace concluded at Constance, between Frederick and the Lombards—Henry the Lion placed under the ban of the empire, and his domains divided.
1186. Sixth Italian campaign—Frederick's son Henry marries Constanza, heiress of the Two Sicilies.
1187. Defeat of the Christians at Hittin, by the Turks, who seize Jerusalem.
- 1189—1193. THIRD CRUSADE—Death of Frederick Barbarossa—The Teutonic order instituted in the camp before Accon—Disputes between Philip II. and Richard Cœur de Lion—Truce with Saladin—Captivity of Richard.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

A. D.

- 1190—1197. HENRY VI.—His cruelty in Apulia and Sicily.
- 1194—1266. Kingdom of the Two Sicilies under the Hohenstaufen.
- 1198—1208. Philip of Suabia and Otho IV.—Ten years' dispute terminated by the assassination of Philip by Otho of Wittelsbach.
- 1200—1204. THE FOURTH (so called) CRUSADE—The Crusaders visit Constantinople for the purpose of re-placing the Emperor Isaac on the throne—They quarrel with the Emperor—Constantinople taken.
- 1204—1261. THE LATIN EMPIRE—Division of the empire—Sovereignities of Nicæa and Trebizond.
1206. Temud-schin becomes Tschinghis (or Great) Khan—Religious wars in the South of France—The Cathari and Waldenses.
- 1208—1215. Otho IV. sole emperor—Engages in a quarrel with the Pope.
1215. Magna Charta Libertatum in England.
- 1215—1250. Frederick II.—His disputes with the Pope respecting the union of the German crown with that of Sicily, and his Crusade to the Holy Land.
1228. CRUSADE OF FREDERICK II.—Treaty with the Egyptian sultan Camel, and the restoration of Jerusalem to the Christians.
- 1230—1283. War between the German (Teutonic) order and the Prussians.
1237. Frederick's victory over the Lombards at Cortenuovo.
1241. Victory of the Mongols at Wahlstatt—Invasion of Hungary—William of Holland.
1248. SIXTH CRUSADE—Louis IX. in Egypt.
- 1250—1256. Conrad IV. († 1254) and William of Holland.
- 1256—1273. The INTERREGNUM in Germany—Richard of Cornwall and Alfonso of Castile.
1258. End of the Arabian caliphate in Bagdad.
1266. The victory of Charles of Anjou over Manfred, near Benevento—Naples and Sicily subdued.
1268. Conradin defeated near Scurcola, and afterwards executed at Naples.
1270. SEVENTH CRUSADE—Louis IX. dies before Tunis.

· FOURTH PERIOD.—FROM THE END OF THE CRUSADES TO THE
DISCOVERY OF AMERICA, 1273—1492.

- 1273—1291. RUDOLPH OF HAPSBURG—War with Ottocar of Bohemia—Accession of Austria, Styria, Steyermack, and Carinthia, by the house of Hapsburg.
1282. Sicilian Vespers—Expulsion of the French from Sicily—The Sicilian Vespers.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

A. D.

1291. Accon, the last of the Christian possessions in Palestine, lost.
- 1292—1298. ADOLPH OF NASSAU—War with the sons of Albrecht the Degenerate, of Thuringia—Albert of Austria opposes the Emperor—Adolph slain at the battle of the Knights, at Goelheim, near Worms.
- 1298—1308. ALBERT I. OF AUSTRIA—Wars with the mountaineers of Switzerland.
1305. The Papal see transferred to Avignon (The captivity).
1307. The Swiss confederation formed—"THE EIDGENOSSEN."
1308. Albert assassinated by his nephew, Duke John of Kyburg (Parricida).
- 1308—1313. HENRY VII. OF LUXEMBOURG—Bohemia united to the German crown—Henry crowned King of the Romans.
1309. The capital of the German (Teutonic) order transferred to Marienburg.
1312. Extermination of the Knight Templars in France.
- 1313—1347 (1330). LOUIS IV. OF BAVARIA AND FREDERICK OF AUSTRIA both elected to the empire, and crowned kings of the Romans.
1315. Leopold of Austria defeated by the Swiss, at Montgarten.
1322. Battle of Mühlendorf—Frederick taken prisoner—Louis and Frederick agree to reign conjointly.
1324. Louis takes possession of Brandenburg—Louis excommunicated by the Pope for assisting the Ghibelines of Lombardy.
- 1328—1498. ELDER LINE OF THE HOUSE OF VALOIS, IN FRANCE.
1338. The electoral diet at Frankfort declares the Emperor independent of the Pope: it is afterwards ratified at Rense.
- 1339—1453. War between France and England, in consequence of the claims of the king of England to the French throne—Victories of the English at Sluys, Creçy, Mauvertuis (Poitiers), and Agincourt.
- 1347—1437. GERMAN KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF BOHEMIA (LUXEMBOURG.)
1347. CHARLES IV.
1348. FIRST GERMAN UNIVERSITY FOUNDED AT PRAGUE.
1356. THE GOLDEN BULL.
- 1378—1400. WENZEL, OR WENCESLAUS, establishes a peace throughout the German States, for six years.
1386. Victory of the Swiss at Sempach, through the heroic self-devotion of Arnold of Winkelried.
1388. The freedom of the Swiss cities secured.
1397. The union of Calmar.
- 1399—1461. The house of Lancaster in England.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

A. D.

- 1400—1418. Rupert, the Count Palatinate, fails in an expedition against Wenceslaus, in Bohemia, and is unsuccessful in Italy
- 1410—1437. Sigismund.
- 1414—1418. COUNCIL OF CONSTANCE—Suppression of the papal schism (the three rival Popes), and the extirpation of heresy—The Hussites of Bohemia.
1415. Martyrdom of John Huss and Jerome of Prague.
1417. The March of Brandenburg granted as a fief to the Burgrave, Frederick VI. of Nuremburg, or Nurnburg, of the house of Hohenzollern, for 400,000 ducats.
- 1419—1436. THE HUSSITE WAR, under John Zisca (†1424)—Sigismund resigns Bohemia, after five unsuccessful campaigns, and on the defeat of the papal legate, Cardinal Julia, the Romans agree to sign a convention between the insurgents and the council of Basle, at Prague.
- 1429—1431. JOAN OF ARC, the Maid of Orleans, put to death by the English.
- 1438—1506. EMPERORS OF THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.
- 1438—1439. ALBERT II.—Unfortunate expedition against the Turks, under Amurath.
- 1440—1493. FREDERICK III.
1453. CONQUEST OF CONSTANTINOPLE BY THE OSMAN TURKS.
- 1459—1485. Wars of the red and white Roses in England (Houses of York and Lancaster).
- 1461—1485. England under the house of York.
1466. West Prussia united to Poland, and East Prussia held as a fief.
1476. Charles the Bold, of Burgundy, defeated at Granson and Morat.
1477. Charles of Burgundy slain at Nancy—The Netherlands and Burgundy come into the possession of the house of Austria.
1486. Diaz discovers the Cape of Good Hope (Cabo Tormentosa).
1492. COLUMBUS DISCOVERS AMERICA.

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